NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW.

No. LIV.

NEW SERIES, NO. XXIX.

JANUARY, 1827.

ART. I.—1. *Report of the Examination which has been made by the Board of Engineers, with a view to Internal Improvement, &c. February* 14, 1825. Printed by Order of the Senate.

2. *Information required by a Resolution of the House of Representatives of the* 13*th ult. in Relation to Expenditures incident or relating to Internal Improvements, for the Years* 1824 *and* 1825. Read and laid upon the Table, April 3, 1826.

3. *Report of the Board of Internal Improvement, upon the Subject of a National Road from the City of Washington to New Orleans.* April 12, 1826.

AN Act was passed by the Congress of the United States, in April, 1824, authorizing the President 'to cause the necessary surveys, plans, and estimates to be made, of such roads and canals, as he may deem of national importance in a commercial or military point of view, or necessary to the transportation of the public mail.' This act was not carried through without an elaborate discussion, nor without calling forth an animated opposition. Although it did not immediately involve the often agitated question, whether Congress has the power, independently of the States, to execute a system of internal improvement, yet it had such a reference to it, as to rouse all

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

the apprehensions connected with that subject, and to justify a course of argument, which ranged through the whole theory and practice of the *implied* powers of the constitution. It was a rambling and desultory debate, considering the point at issue; and many were on the affirmative side at the final vote, who would have been strenuous in the opposition, had the unqualified power been surrendered, which formed the drift of the arguments.

The internal improvement of our country, by means of canals and permanent roads, viewed apart from the power by which they may be constructed, can encounter no opposition from the wise and patriotic. The results of *canalling* are now involved in no uncertainty. The experiment has been in full operation for about half a century in England, with the most satisfactory, and even triumphant success. From good authority, it appears, that £13,205,117 sterling, affording at this time an aggregate dividend of £782,257 sterling, or about $5\frac{3}{4}$ per cent, have been vested in canals in England. By this extensive system of internal improvement, that country has become everywhere intersected with navigable waters; her innermost regions have become accessible to boats from almost all points of her coast, bringing out her treasures from the very bowels of her mountains, and pouring them into the lap of commerce with the same facility, as if nature had cast them upon the verge of the ocean tides. The thousand streams, which used to be running wastefully down her mountains and hills, are now carefully gathered up into reservoirs, and converted, from mere ornaments of the landscape, into powerful auxiliaries of trade. The favored inhabitants of the banks of large rivers, who were formerly accustomed to regard the less fortunate residents in the interior, as cut off from all the profits of commerce, now behold artificial streams descend from all quarters and, regardless of the laws of nature, seek out the nearest route to market, leaving these boasted rivers to flow on in idleness and inutility.

There is scarcely a town in England now, of any considerable population and business, which has not communications of this kind, connecting it with the resources essential to its prosperity and comfort, and with markets for its surplus articles of manufacture and land produce. Her mines, from these circumstances, all become available, and the agriculturist of the interior has the same excitements to industry, as the agriculturist of the coast or the navigable rivers. These canals, joined with their

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

auxiliary railways, and with the permanent roads, have doubtless contributed as much to the prosperity of Britain, as her external commerce; and by bringing into operation a mass of enterprise and wealth, unequalled by any other nation, have enabled her to sustain burdens, which have been the subject of falsified prophecies for the last twenty or thirty years.

It is not surprising, that the United States have heretofore turned so little of their attention to extensive internal improvements. Both population and wealth have been too much scattered for such laborious and expensive undertakings, independently of the many political causes, which have tended to discourage them. But we have now, in some degree, a dense and wealthy population, and the commercial facilities of the country bear no proportion to either its wants or its ability. Demand and consumption are no longer confined to a maritime border; a wide spread interior is claiming its supply. For many years after the emigrant to the West left the Atlantic states, he was obliged to content himself with the scanty produce of the new country around him. He had little to ask from abroad, because his means of payment were small. But the *wilderness* is now an obsolete term with us; and from the Atlantic to the Mississippi, there is a well settled and active population, whose wants, and whose competency to gratify them, are nearly the same. The resident on the Ohio and its tributaries, seeks the same comforts, and almost the same luxuries, as the resident on the Hudson or the Delaware, and has nearly the same means to acquire them.

There was something formidable in the contemplation of these extensive works, and it was natural to distrust ourselves, notwithstanding that other countries had been so successful. But, fortunately, we have now an experiment in our own country, which affords every encouragement to science and to enterprise. New York has, in the very outset, completed a canal which surpasses, in some respects, any similar work in the oldest countries. It is connected with a series of lakes, part only of whose shores are at all inhabited, and runs through a country, populous and highly cultivated, it is true, but having many natural facilities for transportation, considerably improved by art; and yet it promises to be, ere many years, a source of great income to the state which achieved it, besides being of incalculable benefit to the country at large. The beneficial results of a work like this are not confined to itself. It becomes, as it were, the parent

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

of subsidiary works, which would otherwise never have existed; a trunk, whence numerous branches spring, which derive from it their origin and support.*

The first Report mentioned at the head of this article exhibits a preliminary fulfilment of a part of the surveys, intended by the act above cited. That our readers may have the entire plan exhibited in that act, we are induced to make large extracts from the able and comprehensive letter of Mr Calhoun, then Secretary of War, to the President, communicated by him to Congress at the beginning of the Session of 1824–5. As it will probably form the basis of the system of internal improvement, which may occupy the attention of the country for some years to come, it may well claim such permanency of record, as our columns may give it.

'The United States may be considered, in a geographical point of view, as consisting of three distinct parts; of which the portion extending along the shores of the Atlantic, and back to the Allegany mountains, constitute one; that lying on the lakes and the St Lawrence, another; and that watered by the Mississippi, including its various branches, the other. These several portions are very distinctly marked by well defined lines, and have naturally but little connexion, particularly in a commercial point of view. It is only by artificial means of communication, that this natural separation can be overcome; to effect which much has already been done. The great canal of New York firmly unites the country of the lakes with the Atlantic, through the channel of the North river; and the national road from Cumberland to Wheeling, commenced under the administration of Mr Jefferson,

* The following items relating to the New York canal, are extracted from the report of the committee on 'Roads and Canals,' presented to the House of Representatives just before its adjournment, May, 1826.

'The tolls on the New York canal, during the year 1824, amounted to $340,761.07; in 1825, to $566,221.51; and for 1826, they are estimated at $750,000, exceeding eight per cent. per annum, on its cost, at the low rate of one cent per ton per mile, on all agricultural and country produce, and three cents for merchandise; which, with the duty on salt and auctions, will give a surplus of $577,000 a year to discharge the principal, after paying the interest on the debt, and all the expenses of repairs, collections, &c. amounting to $550,000. The number of boats and rafts, which passed on the canal, from 9th of April to 12th of December last, was 13,100, carrying 219,074 tons; 185,405 bound to, and 33,669 from the city of New York; amounting to 42 boats per day; and the number of passengers exceeding 40,000.'

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

unites, but more imperfectly, the Western with the Atlantic states.

'But the complete union of these separate parts, which geographically constitute our country, can only be effected by the completion of the projected canal to the Ohio and Lake Erie, by means of which the country lying on the lakes will be firmly united to that on the western waters, and both with the Atlantic States, and the whole intimately connected with the centre. These considerations, of themselves, without taking into view others, fairly bring this great work within the provision of the act directing the surveys; but when we extend our views, and consider the Ohio and the Mississippi, with its great branches, but as a prolongation of the canal, it must be admitted to be not only of national importance, but of the very highest national importance, in a commercial, military, and political point of view. Thus considered, it involves the completion of the improvements of the navigation of both these rivers, which has been commenced under the appropriation of the last session of Congress; and also, canals round the Falls of Ohio at Louisville, and Muscle Shoals on the Tennessee river, both of which, it is believed, can be executed at a moderate expense. With these improvements, the projected canal would not only unite the three great sections of the country together, as has been pointed out, but would also unite, in the most intimate manner, all of the states on the lakes and the western waters among themselves, and give complete effect to whatever improvements may be made by those states individually. The advantages, in fact, from the completion of this single work, as proposed, would be so extended and ramified throughout these great divisions of our country, already containing so large a portion of our population, and destined, in a few generations, to outnumber the most populous states of Europe, as to leave in that quarter no other work for the execution of the general government, excepting only the extension of the Cumberland road from Wheeling to St Louis, which is also conceived to be of " national importance."

'The route, which is deemed next in importance in a national point of view, is the one extending through the entire tier of the Atlantic states, including those on the Gulf of Mexico. By adverting to the division of our country, through which this route must pass, it will be seen, that there is a striking difference in geographical features, between the portions which extend south and north of the seat of government, including the Chesapeake bay, with its various arms, in the latter division. In the northern part of the division, all of the great rivers terminate in deep and bold navigable estuaries, while an opposite character distinguishes the

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

mouths of the rivers in the other. This difference gives greater advantage to improvement, by canal, in the northern, and less in the southern division. In the former, it is conceived to be of high national importance, to unite its deep and capacious bays by a series of canals; and the Board was accordingly instructed to examine the routes for canals between the Delaware and the Raritan, between Barnstable and Buzzard's bays, and Boston harbor and Narraganset bay. The execution of the very important link in this line of communication between the Delaware and the Chesapeake, having been already commenced, was not comprehended in the order.'

'In the section lying south of this, none of these advantages for communication by canals exist. A line of inland navigation extends, it is true, along nearly the whole line of coasts, which is susceptible of improvement, and may be rendered highly serviceable, particularly in war, and on that account may be fairly considered of "national importance." The Dismal Swamp canal, from the Chesapeake to Albemarle sound, which is nearly completed, constitutes a very important link in this navigation. But it is conceived, that, for the southern division of our country, the improvement which would best effect the views of Congress, would be a durable road, extending from the seat of government to New Orleans, through the Atlantic states; and the Board will accordingly receive instructions to examine the route as soon as the next season will permit.'

'These three great works, then, the canal to Ohio and Lake Erie, with the improvement of the navigation of the Ohio, Mississippi, and the canal round Muscle Shoal; the series of canals connecting the bays north of the seat of government; and a durable road, extending from the seat of government to New Orleans, uniting the whole of the southern Atlantic states, are conceived to be the most important objects within the provisions of the act of the last session.'

There are other improvements of a secondary character, in a national view, which are comprehended in the system of surveys; namely, a connexion of the Atlantic with the Gulf of Mexico, by the most eligible routes through Florida; of the Susquehannah with the Allegany; of the James river with the Kenhawa; and of Lake Champlain with the St Lawrence.

With a view to execute the three primary objects embraced in the foregoing plan, a Board of Internal Improvement was formed, consisting of scientific officers of the corps of engineers, and many civil engineers of approved talents and local informa-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

tion. The Report exhibits the result of their labors during the first season.

The work first presented in the Report, is the proposed *canal communication between the tide water of the Potomac and the Ohio river*. This connexion of the central states with the great streams of the West, appears to have engaged attention, ever since our adventurous population began to pass the Allegany ridge. While we were yet colonies, and the segregated inhabitants beyond that barrier could scarcely have assumed the character of *settlements*, General Washington, then an undistinguished individual, obtained an act of the Virginia legislature, to improve the navigation of the Potomac, with a view to extend a tie into those separated regions, which might bind them by interest, as well as consanguinity, to the Atlantic shores. The war of the Revolution only suspended these exertions; for in 1784, as soon as the great work of independence had been consummated, and the leisure of retirement allowed him to turn his attention to peaceful concerns, we find him at once engaged in endeavors to open this important communication. During the contest, the tide of emigration had been gradually but constantly setting from the East, into the valleys of the West; and when the government of the United States went into operation, instead of finding its sphere confined within the boundaries of the Atlantic and the Allegany mountains, it was obliged to stretch forth its arms almost to the Mississippi. If an easy communication with the West had formerly been important, when it was almost a wilderness, the territories, which were now rising up in its bosom, rendered such a facility doubly important. General Washington, therefore, exerted his influence to harmonize the various interests concerned, and happily induced a cooperation of the states of Virginia and Maryland, whose joint exertions effected the object intended, which was merely to improve the navigation of the Potomac.

But this beneficial improvement, which was probably equal to the ability, and may have answered the demands of the times, is far behind the means, and affords but a slight accommodation for the intercourse, of the present day. The Cumberland road has greatly increased the facility of communication; still, however, these channels are altogether insufficient for the great and constantly augmenting trade, which is pressing against both sides of the Allegany mountains, like contrary tides seeking to mingle their waters. The state of Ohio, bordering on Lake

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Erie, which now no longer has its only outlet through Lake Ontario and the protracted St Lawrence, but finds itself gently conducted down the slope of intervening country into the Hudson, naturally turns to New York, for many or most of its external supplies. Indiana, from somewhat similar local causes, may look to the same market. But populous and growing states south of Ohio, and even a part of the state of Ohio itself, naturally seek the Atlantic states through the Allegany ridge, and must form such a connexion with them. Their trade cannot be lured down the Mississippi, merely by the *facilis descensus*, the easiness of the descent; there is a shrewdness in mercantile calculation, which takes into account the difficulties and tediousness of the return, *hoc opus, hic labor est.* Steam navigation has greatly accelerated the upward voyage; still, however, there are many months in the year, when the Ohio and its tributaries are nearly innavigable, from the lowness of their waters.

If, in estimating the importance of this central communication, we extend our views beyond the season of peace, and regard its utility under many of the vicissitudes, to which a nation is subjected, we shall find that there can be no work in our country, so absolutely essential to its welfare. We have been involved in wars, and may be involved in them again. Under such a calamity, the commerce of the Gulf of Mexico, being the most tangible, would probably be the first to suffer, and the supply of the West, by the way of New Orleans, might be in a great measure cut off. And if the hostility were with Great Britain, which shares with us the dominion over Lake Erie, even the New York chain of connexion with the West might be severed.

But the proposed canal through the Allegany ridge, running through the heart of the country, will open a secure and almost intangible avenue for commercial intercourse, not only with the states conterminous with that ridge, but with the whole western country. And as soon as the proposed canal navigation along the seaboard shall be completed, this intercourse may embrace nearly the whole maritime frontier.

There can have been little or no question, during some years past, that the trade, which naturally passes across the Allegany mountains, is sufficient to repay, in due time, the expense of constructing the proposed canal. Satisfactory calculations have been made, which show that the transportation already moving slowly and heavily to and from the West, through this course,

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

would yield a toll, equal to the interest of a sum quite adequate to complete such a work. And the same calculations go to prove, that the probable difference in the cost of the transportation would be as one to twenty. The only questions then appear to be, Can the means be obtained? and, Where is the most eligible route? We confidently trust, that the means, as they exist in the country, will be forthcoming, as soon as the surveys shall have definitively settled upon the best route. The *practicability* of the route has already been satisfactorily determined, and where any doubt remains, as to part of the course, it arises only from the difficulty of selecting the best out of many.

We cannot follow the Board through all the scientific and minute details of their Report. There appears to be no alternative, as to the course of the canal from tide water to the summit level, and that it must necessarily conform to the windings of the Potomac, which has sought out and followed down the only line of declivity, in that section, which runs from that elevation to the base of the mountains. In one instance, it has broken through a barrier, which the labor of man might vainly have attempted to surmount or remove. The passage of the confluent streams of the Potomac and the Shenandoah, through the Blue Ridge, so graphically described by Mr Jefferson, in his 'Notes on Virginia,' is familiar to every reader. There can be no greater triumph of science, than the calmness and certainty with which it traces up its plan through this formidable gap, unless it be the consummation of the work, when we shall behold a regulated stream, gliding imperturbably along the rugged and precipitous banks of a powerful river, which rushes over the prostrate mountains in all the wildness of the elements unchained.

On attaining the summit level, many routes to the head waters of the Monongahela present themselves, all of which, that hold out any promise, have been surveyed with skilful minuteness. The Board sum up their remarks on these various routes, with the observation, that 'the important advantages of a greater supply of water, by a length shorter by nine miles, of a tunnel shorter by two and a half miles, render the *Deep Creek* route superior to the other; though the final surveys only can settle that point, yet at this stage of our operations we would recommend that route in preference.' This route is fortyone miles and seven hundred and eighteen yards on the summit level, has

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

a tunnel a mile and one third in length, through a ridge two hundred and twentyseven feet high, and has a deep cutting of nearly six miles. The tunneling required on the other routes, varies from the above amount to more than five miles. It is ascertained that this route has an abundance of water.

The total length of the proposed canal, from the tide water of the Potomac to Pittsburg, is computed to be three hundred and fifty miles and a half. The total rise on the eastern side, is computed to be 2296½ feet; the total descent on the western side, at 1540½ feet; making an aggregate of rise and descent of 3837 feet, which is the total of lockage. This amount of lockage is considerably greater, it is believed, than that of any other canal extant. That of the Erie canal is small in comparison. The tunnel, however, is but little more than a third as long as the Huddersfield tunnel in England.*

* We indulged a hope, throughout the session of 1825-6, that the Board of Engineers would be able to lay before Congress a definitive report on the subject of the Chesapeake and Ohio canal; but it appears from the report of the committee on roads and canals, presented to the House of Representatives just before its adjournment, that the Board, 'with every effort,' had not been able to prepare the estimates, &c. in time for that session. As this report of the committee furnishes some facts and details, which were not embraced in the Report of the Board of Engineers, we shall append such as throw new light upon the proposed course of the canal, and which further illustrate its commercial advantages.

It will be observed that the last report of the Board, designates the *Deep Creek* route, as being, according to existing surveys, the most eligible route by which to pass the summit level. The report of the committee says, that, 'since the report of the Board of Internal Improvement, further surveys have been made, resulting in the discovery of a *new summit level*, for the canal, between Casselman river and Well's Creek, where an ample supply of water is said to exist, and to which, should it be found necessary, the whole of the supply of the Deep Creek summit might be transferred by a feeder. This new summit is nearly four hundred feet lower than that of Deep Creek, and about twentysix miles nearer from Cumberland to the Yougheogany. This important saving of lockage and distance, gives the Casselman route a decided preference, though it will require a tunnel of greater length than the other. Another strong argument in favor of this route is derived from the consideration, that it approaches within a very short distance of the waters of the Juniatta, by which, in the opinion of an experienced engineer, who has examined the country, a connexion may be formed with the Chesapeake and Ohio canal, so as to obtain the great object of uniting Pittsburg and Philadelphia.'

Our limits do not allow us to make other extracts from this valuable report, than the following, which, while it exhibits the extent of the

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The next work presented in order in the Report is, the *Ohio and Erie canal.* This canal is an indispensable link in the chain of navigation which is to connect the various parts of our country together. Without it, the geographical separation of of the region of the Lakes from the heart of the country, would be almost as distinct as ever. The survey of this route was not completed in all its details; but the Board deemed themselves warranted, from the facts ascertained, to report, 'that a canal from Pittsburg to Lake Erie is not only practicable, but offers no difficulties from the nature of the soil, and will be amply provided with water for its navigation.' After ascending the Big Beaver, a tributary of the Ohio, three routes to Lake Erie present themselves, differing in length from a hundred and four to a hundred and thirteen miles, the full distance from Pittsburg to that lake. A fourth route runs up the valley of the Allegany river, a hundred and forty miles in length. The greatest height above Lake Erie, in any of them, is 470 feet, and the greatest amount of lockage, 773 feet. The harbors on the south side of Lake Erie, formed by the mouths of rivers, into one of which it is proposed to conduct this canal, are subject to the disadvan-

---

trade which crosses the Allegany ridge, at the same time shows the comparative disadvantages it has to encounter.

'Some idea of the commercial advantages of this work may be formed, when the fact is stated, that the transportation of merchandise for the supply of the Western states to Pittsburg in one year, has amounted to one and a half million of dollars, and that the amount carried to Wheeling, and other towns on the Western waters, and *wagoned* on through Ohio, at dry seasons, must have exceeded this amount; most of those wagons had also return loads of agricultural produce, which, with the amount carried by farmers and others, would probably nearly equal the transportation westward, and should it amount to only half, still it would appear that the country sustains a tax for transportation, of four of five millions a year; whereas, if this merchandise were waterborne on canals, the cost would be reduced to less than half a million; the difference in cost being estimated as 10 to 1; though the usual estimate has been as 20 to 1. Besides, the construction of the canal (as in New York) would more than double the quantity of trade and commerce; thus the whole cost of the canal would be saved to the country in a few years, yielding, at the same time, on the stock invested, a profit of 6 or 8 per cent. to the government, more than the amount of interest accruing on the national debt, which the national creditors are anxious should be paid, and also returning to the people a portion of the money paid by them into the treasury, to promote and cherish industry, trade, commerce, and manufactures, and these profits and advantages, of course, increasing with the increasing growth and population of the country.'

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

tages of a sand bar at their outlets. But means may be devised to remove this obstruction. An experiment is already making at Erie (which has the same disadvantage, though not the mouth of a river), under the direction of an officer of the corps of engineers. This canal, with the more western canal, which is intended to connect the Sciota with Lake Erie, and which has already been begun by the state of Ohio, will open two communications between these great geographical departments of the country, from which incalculable benefits may be anticipated, of a political and commercial, as well as of a military nature. It is only necessary to call to mind the difficulties which were encountered during the late war, in sustaining the campaigns on the lake frontier, through the want of artificial facilities of this kind, in order to appreciate their extreme importance and necessity. We shall not probably much exaggerate, if we assert, that the *excess* of expenses, during the several campaigns in that quarter, which arose from this deficiency, would have defrayed the whole cost of the two canals we have been commenting on.

The next work, of a primary character, exhibited in the Report, is the *Delaware and Raritan canal.* This canal proposes to connect the waters of New York harbor with those of the Delaware river. It will be about forty miles long, and of sufficient dimensions to receive 'bay vessels,' that is, such vessels as carry on the commercial intercourse between New York, Philadelphia, and other cities. The face of the country, through which it is to run, will admit of one level, without any very deep or expensive cutting, from nearly tide water to tide water, having a series of locks at each extremity, descending into the Raritan on one side and the Delaware on the other.*

* The *Delaware and Chesapeake canal*, which forms another link in this chain of internal navigation, connecting the Delaware river with the Chesapeake Bay, having already been commenced, did not come within the operations of the Board. This important work, which was undertaken and is continued under the authorities of Delaware and Maryland, is of the same dimensions as the Delaware and Raritan canal, and extends the same commercial intercourse from Philadelphia to the more southern cities, as is intended between Philadelphia and New York. According to the statement made by a member of the Senate on the floor of Congress, one hundred pieces of cannon were, during the late war, transported across the neck of land severed by the canal, at the immoderate expense of more than $450 apiece! This canal will be fourteen miles long, and lined with stone. During the last session of Congress, the general government was authorized to

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The next work presented in the Report, is, the *Buzzard's and Barnstable bay canal.* By this canal it is proposed to sever, near the main land, the isthmus of Cape Cod, which, projecting its sandy arm far into the sea, interposes a most inconvenient barrier between the coasting of the North and the South. The deep interest, which Massachusetts and the states north of her feel in this long desired communication, induces us to enter somewhat into the details of the Board, that the nature and practicability of the work may be understood. We would first remark, that the Board, after satisfactory surveys, reject the route by Barnstable and Hyannis harbor. The Report then proceeds;

'A canal to communicate between Buzzard's and Barnstable bays, should follow successively from west to east the valleys of Monument and Scussit rivers. That route was surveyed in 1818 by Mr L. Baldwin, at the individual expense of Messrs Israel Thorndike, Thomas H. Perkins, and other gentlemen of Boston. Its total length is about eight miles.'

'At its western extremity, the tide rises in Buzzard's bay, from five feet to five feet three inches. At its eastern extremity, it rises in Barnstable bay, from ten feet to ten feet four inches, and three hours and a half later than in the other. Thus the medium of tide water in Barnstable bay, is probably about on a level with high tide water in Buzzard's bay; the level of low water in the latter, was, on the eleventh of September, 1818, eight inches and six tenths higher than in Barnstable bay.'

'As the tide ascends three or four miles in Monument river, and about two miles in Scussit river, this route extends only two or three miles from the head of one tide to the head of the other. The highest point of intervening ground is thirtythree feet and a third above low water in Barnstable bay, and twentythree and a half above high tide. Thus nature has left little to do to unite the two bays.'

The Board have determined, that sufficient harbors may be made at each extremity, by using the advantage which nature has afforded, without difficulty, or any great expense; and that the soil, through which it is to be cut, presents no insurmountable obstacles. The scarcity of water for feeders, offers, in the opinion of the Board, no choice, but to cut the canal 'on

subscribe for 1500 shares ($300,500) in the stock of this canal, which furnishes sufficient means to complete the work with all practicable despatch.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

one level from one bay to the other, to be fed by the tide of Barnstable bay, and provided with a tide lock at each end. Its bottom will be at least eight feet and a half below the neap tides, or nine and a half below the common tides in the bay.'

The Board sum up their opinion on this work, in the following encouraging terms. 'This short analysis proves, that the practicability of the Buzzard's and Barnstable canal does not admit of a doubt, and that its construction will meet with no serious obstacle. The expense will not be great, if we compare it with that of the Delaware and Chesapeake canal, which extends fourteen miles in length, and requires a deep cut of three miles, through a ridge which rises eightyfour feet above tide water, and seventysix feet above its summit level. The maximum cost of this last canal has been valued at $1,354,364.'

The last work presented in the Report, is the *Taunton and Weymouth canal.* The surveys of this route were not so complete, as to enable the Board to pronounce upon its practicability. There can be no doubt of the importance of this short and direct communication between Boston and Narraganset bay. It would be a great facility to our coasting trade in time of peace, and it would be almost indispensable to its security in time of war, as the communication by the way of the Cape Cod canal, might easily be interrupted by an enemy powerful at sea. This canal would likewise form an essential subsidiary to the maritime defences, erecting at and near Newport.

We cannot better close the foregoing remarks, than by adopting the summary, with which the distinguished members of the Board conclude their Report.

'As to the general results obtained by this expedition, they are as favorable as possible to the great object in contemplation; opening a system of communication to unite all the sections of the Republic by the bonds of commercial intercourse, and rapid mutual aid in time of danger, This system will contribute essentially to the great end of rendering the means of our government more efficient; for, by reducing the time necessary for communication, it will reduce in fact, the great distances which divide the sections of our vast empire from each other, and will enable us easily and promptly to transfer the means and produce of one climate to another; it will give a new value to the agricultural and mineral riches of our soil, and a new life and activity to our manufacturing industry, by facilitating their circulation. Without a free and constant circulation, the political, as well as human body becomes paralyzed and benumbed in its operations.'

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

We have made use of the title which stands second at the head of this article, merely to authorize a more general notice of the various improvements by canals, which have been finished, begun, or projected in this country within a few years, than would naturally fall within the scope of the foregoing remarks. The information connected with this interesting subject, lies scattered through so many documents, as to render any complete or satisfactory view of it almost impossible. We can hardly regret this deficiency, as more ample materials would only embarrass us with a choice of difficulties, either to lay before our readers a naked list, or to omit many important notices. We shall, therefore, content ourselves at this time, with referring to such only, as have been regarded as of national importance, and one or two others, which, although exclusively the works of individual states, nevertheless, from their probable influence on the general prosperity of large portions of the country, and from the fact of their not being fully known to the public, demand particular mention.

The Journal of the last session of Congress, exhibits the awakened and zealous spirit of improvement, which pervades nearly the whole Union. The applications for surveys, for the purpose of ascertaining the resources and natural advantages of the country, which may be rendered subservient to this great end, were presented from all quarters, and urged on the most enlightened and liberal principles. In considering these applications, the only question seemed to be, whether they referred to improvements of a national, rather than a local character; and whenever determined to be of the former, we believe the surveys were uniformly directed to be made.

Among the propositions of this kind early presented to Congress the last session, was that of making a 'survey of a route for a canal between the Atlantic and the Gulf of Mexico;' to which was reported an amendment, proposing to extend the survey 'from the Appalachicola or the Suwany west, through the bays of St Andrews, Santa Rosa, Pensacola, Perdido, Mobile, and Pascagoula, and through lakes Borgue and Pontchartrain, to the Mississippi, by the Iberville or the canal Carondelet.' This amendment was urged upon the alleged fact, that about three hundred and fifty miles of inland navigation may be effected between these two points, by removing small obstructions at a few points, and 'the cutting of twelve miles.' This important and extraordinary natural facility for inland navigation, along a coast,

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

appears to rest, at present, upon the authority of the delegate from Florida, confirmed, probably, by an inspection of the maps, which certainly present appearances the most favorable to its truth. It is undoubtedly worthy of investigation, and we hope the surveys corroborate the most sanguine anticipations; though we cannot altogether repress a doubt, whether, on such an alluvial and, as we understand, such a sandy coast, the shores of these intervening necks of land will be found so bold, and washed by inlets so deep, as to render little other labor necessary, than to excavate the dry land apparent on the maps.

But, however desirable this continuation of the inland navigation to the Mississippi may be, to considerable portions of our country; yet we conceive the original proposition, having in view merely the connexion of the Atlantic with the Gulf of Mexico, by severing the Peninsula of Florida, to be of incomparably greater importance. This latter project is recommended by many probable natural facilities; such as a flat country, inland waters, and a soil apparently favorable for excavation, besides the important commercial considerations which are involved in its success. The United States present a long frontier upon the Gulf of Mexico; and the Mississippi sends down into it a trade, which may increase to an incalculable degree. And most of this trade, before it can reach the Atlantic, which is the great highway of commerce, has to make a voyage, protracted, perplexed, and beset with perils. Neither can we rate too highly the political importance of such an intersection of this circuitous and hazardous navigation. The narrow channel between Cuba and the Florida cape, affording the most direct and feasible outlet of the Gulf, gives to the nation occupying that island a potential control over that part of our commerce, which should be withdrawn if possible. Nothing short of necessity, of an absolute inability to conduct it into the Atlantic by a more independent passage, should persuade us to submit to the present condition of things, which, by bringing us so immediately in contact with a foreign power, subjects the nation constantly to the liability of misunderstandings and war.

It would be useless to speculate upon the probable success of the work, until the proper surveys have been made. It is to be hoped, that our most ardent expectations may be fulfilled, and particularly that the practicability of a ship channel (less than which would not serve the great purposes of commerce) may be satisfactorily determined. Some instances of such magnificent

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

canals have been cited, as an encouragement to the undertaking; such as the Caledonian canal, connecting the Forth and Clyde; and the great ship canal of Holland. There can be no harm in stimulating ourselves to enterprise, by contemplating these successful exertions of other countries; and with our present confidence in the skill and investigating activity of the corps, to which is entrusted these preliminary surveys, we feel no apprehensions of being induced to commence any work, the practicability of which, founded upon actual examination, and not upon foreign examples, has been fully ascertained. While the Florida neck may possess a soil very favorable for excavation, and embrace large reservoirs of water, either already lengthened out into natural canals, or in the shape of lagoons, seemingly ready to pour their waters into such artificial channels as may be constructed near them; and is so level as scarcely to impose the necessity of a deep cutting throughout the whole distance; yet, perhaps, this very levelness, which holds out such promise to superficial observation, may be found, upon scientific and severe investigation, to present obstacles not easy to be surmounted. The Caledonian canal terminates in bold and deep estuaries, and is fed through its course by copious streams, which are lifted up, by the inequalities of the country, above the level of the canal; and are easily conducted into it. While the Kiel canal, from the nature of the country,

'Where the broad ocean leans against the land,'

is amply supplied with water by the tides, which pass through its outer locks, as if regaining a part of their old dominion. The Florida canal may find a favorable *embouchure* on the Gulf side, in Vacassa bay, or elsewhere; but the Atlantic coast does not hold out such flattering promises.

Early in March the attention of Congress was called to the *Dismal Swamp canal*, which, although almost coeval with the federal government, has not heretofore attracted much notice. This canal, as it now stands, is twentytwo miles and a half in length, thirtyeight feet wide on the surface, and five feet and a half deep. It connects Hampton roads, by Elizabeth river at one end, and Pasquotank river at the other, with Albemarle and Pamplico sounds, which stretch along nearly the whole front of North Carolina, and receive many of her most important rivers. As soon as the great chain of internal navigation engaged the attention of the general government, this canal was deter-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

mined to be an indispensable link; and, accordingly, when application was made to Congress to empower the general government to subscribe for stock in the company, to an amount sufficient to enable it to lengthen the canal, and give it a more perfect connexion with the Southern sounds, a bill was presented (which finally passed), granting the requisite authority. The present depth of the canal must probably be increased, to fulfil the purposes of the grant; at least so much as to render it suitable for receiving the craft common to the Southern sounds. The Dismal Swamp, through which this canal is cut, was formerly regarded as one of those Serbonian bogs, those impenetrable fastnesses of nature, which seemed to defy the encroaching power of man. But the hardy enterprise of Virginia has laid open its dark recesses, and has long been drawing from its inexhaustible stores the most valuable materials for commerce.*

It would be somewhat premature at this time to take further notice of the many surveys authorized by the last Congress. They are merely in an incipient state, and may afford subjects for more extended and interesting remarks hereafter.

Although not particularly led to it by the documents before us, we could not excuse ourselves if we were to overlook, in connexion with this subject, the *Ohio canal*, which is intended to unite, by the Scioto and Cayahoga rivers, the Ohio river with Lake Erie. This great project, like its parent enterprise, the New York canal, is the exclusive work of the state through which it runs. Ohio, whose existence can scarcely be said to reach back into the last century, now feels such confidence in her resources, as to undertake this great work, which, by connecting the noble river which washes her southern border, with the broad lake which spreads along the whole extent of her northern boundary, will offer to her inhabitants the option of seeking a market, with equal facility, through the St Lawrence, the New York canal, or the Mississippi. This transverse communication will make this great privilege, which is now but partially enjoyed, almost common and interchangeable. It was begun, with much interesting ceremony, on the fourth of July, 1825, and is already in rapid progress. It has two summit levels, is to be three hundred and six miles and a half long, forty feet wide, and four feet deep, with an ascent of six hundred

* For other particulars respecting the Dismal Swamp canal, see North American Review, Vol. XII. p. 30.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

and thirtyeight feet, and a descent of five hundred and fortyseven feet; the estimate of the cost, $2,800,000.* Too much credit cannot be given to this young, but wealthy and enterprising state, whose forecast sees nothing appalling in a debt, which stands vested in substantial and permanent improvements; such as, upon every probable calculation, will in time repay itself, and leave the privileges created by it, to be used almost as cheaply as the common bounties of the earth.

The last work of internal improvement which we shall notice, is, the *national road*, from the city of Washington to New Orleans, a report upon which was presented to Congress in April, 1826. The communication from the seat of government with all the states north and east, and along the Atlantic states south, being through the old states, all populous and highly cultivated, is sufficiently free and unobstructed to serve all national, as well as local purposes. But the western states were long separated from the eastern by the Allegany ridge; over which, however, there now runs a great road, constructed by the general government. Until within a few years, it extended only to Wheeling, merely facilitating the passage of the mountains; but, agreeably to a compact with the Northwestern states, it is now in progress through Ohio, and will doubtless be carried, in due time, through Indiana and Illinois to the Mississippi. There was still another avenue, to lead from the seat of government directly to New Orleans, which having its course, for a great portion of the distance, through districts of comparatively sparse population, or entirely unsettled, but connecting a most important extremity of the Union with the common centre, had long demanded the aid of the general government. Accordingly, when the primary objects of the act of the thirtieth of April, 1824 were to be determined by the Executive, it appears, by the letter of Mr Calhoun, before cited, that this great southwestern communication was among the most prominent. No language of our own could urge the utility and necessity of this national road, with the force they assume in Mr Calhoun's letter already quoted. Indeed, there appears to be no question, as to

* For the above facts relating to this canal we are indebted to a manuscript account of the canals in the United States by an intelligent gentleman, who has been intimately connected with many of the works of internal improvement, and whose account, in a more enlarged state, we should gladly see presented to the public.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

the propriety and urgency of the measure; and the difficulty seems to be only in the selection of the route.

By the Report of the Board of Engineers, we observe that three routes have been investigated, and are set forth with all their advantages and disadvantages, positive and relative, leaving Congress to determine which route is entitled to the preference. The *eastern route* passes through the capitals of the southern Atlantic states, crossing the main rivers, that flow from the Alleganies through those states, below their falls, and where the sloop navigation terminates. The probable length of this route is 1136 miles. The *middle route* crosses the same rivers as the eastern route, but above their falls, at what may be called the head of boat navigation, following the foot of the Alleganies as far as they extend. The probable length of this route is 1106 miles. The *western route* crosses the Blue Ridge, and proceeds towards the sources of the Shenandoah, intersecting the head branches of the James, Roanoke, and Great Kenhawa rivers, and afterwards striking the Tennessee and Hewassee. The probable length of this route is 1140 miles. The Report says, 'the middle route and the western route are about equally provided with materials,' having much the advantage of the eastern route in this respect. The western route requires fewer bridges and less length of causeway than the other two routes, but will be graduated with more expense. We should infer, however, from the report, that the aggregate expense of construction will be the least upon the western route. The following summary presents the principal conclusions to which the Board was led; namely,

'*Commerce.* The eastern route will enjoy the exclusive advantage of facilitating the commercial correspondence between our inland importing and exporting marts. The middle and western will contribute more than the eastern, to the development of internal commerce and industry.'

'*Accommodation of population.* The eastern and middle routes will accommodate directly more states than the western; but, taking into view, and by anticipation, the increase of population, perhaps the three routes ought to be placed upon the same footing.'

'*Political considerations.* The eastern route has the advantage to pass by the seats of government of the southern states; the western, to cross the chain of mountains which separates the western from the southern states.'

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

'*War.* Through the western route, greater and more efficient assistance will be afforded, in times of emergency, to the states and naval establishments upon the Gulf, than through the other routes.'

'*Transportation of the mail.* As to time, we are inclined to believe that the middle route has the advantage over the others; as to expense, it will be less upon the middle, and especially upon the western, than upon the eastern; as to horses, the service of the mail will be better and more cheaply secured upon the middle route, and especially upon the western, than upon the eastern.'

We have thus endeavored to present a rapid sketch of the more prominent projects for internal improvement, which have engaged the attention of the general government during the last few years. Some steps have been taken, with respect to all of them. Those to which the aid of the general government has been extended in the way of subscriptions, were mostly already in a state of advancement; and this aid has been granted with the understanding, that it is sufficient to complete them. In the other cases, preliminary surveys only have been authorized, which are either finished, or will be soon. All these surveys have been made, or are making, under the superintendence of persons officially responsible to the nation, of acknowledged skill and experience, and having valuable reputations to maintain; and we believe that public confidence may safely repose on their correctness. They will enable the competent authorities to determine, with the most satisfactory precision, the practicability and probable cost of each work, and to commence it with every reasonable assurance of success.

With respect to the general sentiment of the nation, we are inclined to think it is in harmony with the liberal and national spirit in which these projects have originated; and we moreover believe, that they all will ultimately be accomplished, and without disturbing the chartered rights of any state, or embarrassing the resources of the country. The age is advancing in improvements, and the United States, with their moral and intellectual attainments, cannot lag behind it. The impulse is irresistible, and must be yielded to. A nation, which regulates its own government, granting or withdrawing power according to its own free will, cannot quietly sit down under restraints, which impair its strength, comforts, and dignity.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The constitutional doctrine, to the extent laid down in Mr Monroe's Message to Congress on the third of December, 1823, when recommending to its attention the Chesapeake and Ohio canal, appears now to be settled, at least so far as repeated decisions of the general government, founded upon large and increasing majorities of Congress, can establish it. And it will be recollected that Mr Monroe, in conformity with the opinions of Mr Madison, was an advocate of only a restricted power in the general government over internal improvement. The passage to which we would call attention is the following; 'Believing, as I do, (says Mr Monroe) that Congress possess the right to appropriate money for such a national object [alluding to the Chesapeake and Ohio canal], the jurisdiction remaining with the states through which the canal would pass, I submit it to your consideration,' &c. Greater latitude of power is contended for by a respectable and growing party in Congress; but even under this qualified grant, we should anticipate no impediment to the execution of the various improvements which have been proposed. The national road to New Orleans, will doubtless be the exclusive work of the general government. There are no apparent inducements for either states or corporate companies to undertake it. It is for general and not local purposes, and naturally falls under that provision of the constitution, which relates to the transportation of the mail. The Cumberland road, so far as it extended at first, must be regarded in the same light, and although its continuation through the Northwestern states, may appear only a fulfilment of the compact with those states, yet it must likewise be considered as fulfilling the same important provision of the constitution. Until that great avenue was opened, it could not be said, that the Western states enjoyed those facilities of communication with the seat of government, which they had a right to claim under the constitution, and which the general welfare demanded. Nor can it with more reason be said, that the Southwestern states, separated as they are from the common centre by unsettled and almost impassable districts, enjoy those *mail* privileges, which they are entitled to under the constitution, and which the public interest requires should be extended to every important section of the Union.

The Chesapeake and Ohio canal has already the highest sanction of every state through which it will pass; and the aid of the general government has been invited by all of them. Subscription books have been opened by a company, the joint cor-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

poration of three states, and the district of Columbia; and as soon as the surveys and estimates are completed, there will be wanting nothing but the determination of the general government as to the amount of that aid, to give a beginning to the great undertaking. Should the continuation of this canal to Lake Erie, through Ohio, be likely to encounter opposition from the interests of that state, so largely vested in its own parallel work, it is probable that an equally eligible route will be ascertained, by the surveys, to exist within the limits of Pennsylvania.

But we have not space for further enlargement on this subject; more especially for the reflections which crowd on the mind, while contemplating it. The bounties of nature are lavishly spread around us; but it is known, that the skill and industry of man can improve them a thousand fold. There is a wisdom, a grandeur, in the policy, which would give the strongest impulse, the highest direction, to this skill and industry; and we should feel the deepest regret, nay, our pride in our country would be humbled, if we believed that its institutions, instead of being compatible with this beneficent policy, had a tendency to repress and crush it. In regard to national and state rights, we believe no course of policy could produce a more just balance between them. Those measures, which efficaciously tend to make the whole thriving, powerful, and united, cannot but benefit every part.

ART. II.—*The History of New England from* 1630 *to* 1649; by JOHN WINTHROP, *first Governor of the Colony of Massachusetts Bay; from his Original Manuscripts. With Notes to illustrate the Civil and Ecclesiastical Concerns, the Geography, Settlement, and Institutions of the Country, and the Lives and Manners of the principal Planters.* By JAMES SAVAGE. 2 vols. 8vo. Boston. Phelps & Farnham.

TILL within a few years, the history of our own country was the last object which engaged the attention of American scholars. The study of that history formed no part of our system of education either at school or at college, and the voluntary perusal of it at a subsequent period of life, was considered the business of a mere antiquary rather than of a well informed American citi-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

zen. This neglect of so important a subject certainly redounded little to our credit, and has been condemned by many as a sure and strong indication of a want of patriotism. We ascribe it to a very obvious and much less censurable cause, the character of those works in which our own history is written. As these are much more remarkable for accuracy and impartiality, than for elegance of style and philosophical research, the general and undiscriminating neglect, with which they have been treated, though far from justifiable, is, on the whole, not surprising. These remarks, which are not to be understood without qualification or exception, may be applied particularly to our colonial history. The 19th of April 1775 seemed to be often considered as the birthday of our nation not only in many, but in all respects, and our condition before that period was regarded as a state of preexistence. It is only of late, that we have learned to trace our present free and happy condition, to its remote as well as its proximate causes, to acknowledge our obligations not only to the statesmen and soldiers, who conducted the war of independence, but to those sages from whom we derived the principles, institutions, and habits, which render independence desirable.

Of all the tribes of hardy adventurers, who laid the foundation of our widely extended nation, there are none who have been alike censured and applauded with so little discrimination, as the pilgrim fathers of New England. Their characters have been sometimes held up as models of almost supernatural excellence, but they have more generally been depicted in far different colors; and there were many among us who seemed to be ignorant of almost every event which occurred in Massachusetts during the seventeenth century, except the destruction of the aborigines, the persecution of the Quakers, and the execution of the witches. Slight and vague impressions are now happily giving way to correct and circumstantial knowledge, and the early history of this state is becoming an object of great and constantly increasing interest. A complete and elegant history of Massachusetts is yet a desideratum, but the want of such a work has been supplied in no inconsiderable degree, by the ability and eloquence with which the principles and institutions of the pilgrims have been portrayed in less voluminous productions.

Those, however, who would become thoroughly acquainted with the character of our forefathers, must study their works; and we need hardly state the fact, that no men ever left behind them more accurate and impartial accounts of their own conduct.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

All their actions, even those which are now most condemned and regretted, are narrated with equal unreserve and minuteness; and however we may occasionally lament their prejudice or passion, every line of their writings bears indisputable testimony to their sincerity and frankness. Among all the works of that period, there is none of a more extraordinary or interesting description than the book before us. An exact journal of the first governor of Massachusetts Bay, embracing the history of the country between the years 1630 and 1649, is manifestly a document so singularly desirable, that, in other countries, and under other circumstances, its authenticity would be subjected to no slight suspicion. In this age of literary scepticism, indeed, we know not whether it will even now be universally admitted, and should not be surprised at an elaborate argument from some humble disciple of the school which has argued so strenuously against the existence of Homer, showing that the book before us is the production not of one, but of a hundred hands, that its supposed author never existed, and that John Winthrop was not the name of an individual, but a general title of all the governors of Massachusetts during the seventeenth century. As no such question has yet been started, we may be permitted to express our gratification, at seeing the whole of this work presented to the public for the first time in a complete form, and our obligations, shared by the whole community, to its present able and learned editor. The first volume was published at Hartford, in 1790, from the manuscripts in possession of Governor Winthrop's descendants. The manner in which the remaining portion of the work was brought to light, as well as the reasons which led to a revised copy of the whole, will appear in the following extract from Mr Savage's Preface.

'Early in the spring of 1816 was discovered, in the tower of the Old South Church in Boston, the third volume of the History of New England, in the original MS. of the author, John Winthrop, first governor of the Massachusetts Bay. When the precious book was presented to the Massachusetts Historical Society, at their next meeting, 25 April, the difficulty of transcribing it for the press seemed to appal several of the most competent members, whose engagement in more important duties afforded also a sufficient excuse for leaving such labor to be undertaken by any one, at any time, who could devote to it many weeks of leisure. The task appeared inviting to me. On the same evening the MS. was taken, and the study of its chirography was begun, the next day,

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

by the aid of one of the former MSS. collated with the printed volume, usually called Winthrop's Journal. Of all the three MSS. and of the published Journal, a sufficient account may be seen in 2 Hist. Coll. IV. 200.

Before the collation of the former MS. with the volume printed in 1790 had proceeded through many pages, the discovery of numerous important errors seemed to make a new edition of the earlier part of the History very desirable; and when a transcript of the new found volume was completed, my resolution was fixed, that it should not be printed without a perfect revision of the Journal. Notes, explanatory, in some instances, of the text, illustrating, in some degree, the biography of many persons named in it, and referring to better accounts of others than I could furnish, were thought necessary. Several hundred notes were prepared, and a careful collation of the whole printed volume, for the second time, with the original volumes of MS. was finished on 2 June, 1819. Being then required to visit a foreign country, all my preparations were suspended until I returned. Care, however, was taken to leave the corrected copy of the printed volume, with my copy of the third part, to be kept safely. Again called abroad in 1822, I so carefully disposed of my copy of the third volume, as to leave it in a forgotten place, which afforded me the gratification of making a new one, begun 8 December, 1823, and finished 30 March, 1824. This circumstance admonished me of the propriety of adopting early measures for guarding against farther accidents of that kind. Application was made, at the next session of the General Court of this commonwealth, by the Historical Society, for encouragement of the publication. In consequence of the liberal aid of the Legislature, the volume comes thus early before the public.'

Mr Savage afterwards informs us, that the original manuscript will remain in the library of the Historical Society for his correction by any one, who doubts of the faithfulness of a single passage. Few we believe will undertake the task, and he has enabled us to form some judgment of his amendments, at a much less expense of labor. Whenever he has introduced a new reading, he has accompanied it with a note of reference to the corresponding word or sentence in the first edition, which is inserted at the bottom of the page. Internal evidence is, generally speaking, strongly in Mr Savage's favor. He has given meaning to many passages, which before bade defiance to explanation, has removed many irreconcilable contradictions, and often substituted plain sense for whimsical absurdity. Who will suppose for

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

example, that Governor Winthrop could say (p. 62) in speaking of a night which he was obliged to pass in the woods, in consequence of losing his way, that 'it was through God's mercy a *weary* night' instead of a '*warm* night' or (p. 80) that 'one Noddle, an honest man of Salem, was drowned while *running* wood in a canoe,' instead of '*carrying* wood,' or lastly (p. 323) that 'all *breeches* were made up, and the church saved from ruin beyond all expectation,' instead of '*breaches*.'

In bestowing due praise on the present edition, we would not be understood to speak lightly of the industry or accuracy of the former editor. Independently of the important assistance, which Mr Savage states himself in the above extract to have derived from the printed volume, it requires only a glance at the *fac simile* at the end of the present work, or at a few of the earliest pages of the Town Records of Boston, to satisfy us of the extreme difficulty of reading the handwriting of Governor Winthrop and his contemporaries. It is very different from the ancient 'Court Hand,' so much extolled by Blackstone, and bears a much nearer resemblance to the writing of scholars of the present day. To those who inspect it for the first time, it will seem less surprising that numerous errors should have been committed by the first editor, or that he should have given up many passages in despair, than that he should have decyphered so clearly the great body of the work.

We are glad to find that Mr Savage has not contented himself with improving on the verbal labors of his predecessor. He has added an Appendix, consisting of a number of authentic letters, and constituting, in our opinion, the most interesting portion of Governor Winthrop's writings, and has enriched the work with a large number of original and able notes. The good sense and impartiality of his comments form a singular contrast to the strong and undiscriminating attachment, generally shown by editors towards every part of those productions, which they have employed their time and talents in illustrating. We would more particularly recommend to the attention of our readers, his arguments against the genuineness of the celebrated Wheelwright deed of 1629. The whole train of reasoning is a specimen of acute research and powerful logic, but is too long to be inserted in this place. Mr Savage's positions have since derived ample confirmation from several manuscript documents which came into his possession a few days before the publication of his second volume, and in our opinion he has completely put the question at rest.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

This work seems to be, in the strict sense of the word, a regular journal begun by Governor Winthrop on board the 'Arbella' at Cowes, March 29, 1630, and ending in the year 1649. It appears from some passages in it, that it was revised and prepared for publication by its author. Though it certainly deserves the reputation which it has so long and generally enjoyed, of being on the whole, a highly interesting work, it contains much that can afford little entertainment to the more general reader, and some passages which the author would probably have omitted had he lived at the present day.

Many will be surprised at finding such frequent and copious details of ordinary casualties and accidents, which a historian of this age would have passed over in silence. This misplaced minuteness may be ascribed in no inconsiderable degree, to the circumstances under which Governor Winthrop wrote, and the vast difference in many respects between the state of society at that period, and in our own times. At the present day, every breakfast table is loaded with fresh newspapers, and every morning brings its new accounts of accidents or casualties, or its tales of wonder or horror, to efface those of yesterday from our memory. It is only occurrences of real and great importance, that can arrest the attention of a numerous and busy community, any longer than the passing moment. In the days of Governor Winthrop, the inhabitants of Boston were a small and insulated people, and newspapers were a late invention even in England. The death of a single individual was felt, as that of a member of a social circle, and the loss of a few valuable animals was viewed, and not without reason, with the same emotions with which we now look on our most calamitous tempests or conflagrations.

The peculiar religious tenets of our forefathers combined with their desolate situation, in giving an extraordinary and solemn interest to every accident which befell any of their associates. They appear to have carried the doctrine of temporal rewards and punishments further than any religious sect of our own days, to have considered themselves as living not only under the constant, but almost under the miraculous care of Providence, and to have noted down and interpreted every casualty as a direct manifestation of divine displeasure. It may be more difficult to defend the intolerance which is frequently displayed in these volumes, and which is a melancholy indication of the degree in which the author, notwithstanding his naturally mild and benevolent disposition, partook of the reigning spirit of his companions.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The religious intolerance of our Puritan forefathers is a fault, which it would be worse than useless to deny, and we allow that their constant and manifest consciousness of their own rectitude, furnishes them with only a partial justification. Doubtless there was much of pride and of anger secretly intermingled in their zeal for the prevalence of unmingled truth, and the establishment of an immaculate church. We think, however, that in this respect, as in many others, they have been censured with much too little allowance for their peculiar condition and pursuits. It is well known, that their object was to plant a church and not an empire. They were not merely a religious, but a theological community; all their thoughts except so far as they were necessarily directed to their own subsistence and security, were absorbed by 'those duties of which God is not only the author but the object.' It was natural, therefore, that disputes on subjects which engrossed the whole intellect and feelings of the community, should be carried on with intense earnestness, and our forefathers were certainly not singular in transgressing the slight boundary, which separates earnestness from passion. In our own days we have seen how far passion and prejudice can be carried, in politics, in times of high excitement, when the vital interests of the nation are considered as depending on the success of this or that party; and what politics were twenty years ago, theology was in 1640. The disputes of parties in our own days generally produce no other injury, than the interruption of social intercourse, and the exchange of unkind looks and hard words. Person and property are protected by written constitutions and laws, which, independently of their direct operation, have, by a necessary reaction, strengthened, fortified, and extended in the public mind, those principles of justice and humanity which gave them birth. Above all, the right of trial by jury furnishes a refuge against public and individual oppression, which can never be rendered insecure, till the deepest foundations of society are broken up. Two hundred years ago, the rights of citizens were far less extensive than now, and defined with far less precision. Our colonial fathers early claimed and exercised the power of internal legislation, and though they were forbidden to make any law contrary to the law of England, yet their proceedings were for a long time unchecked and unnoticed by the mother country. They brought with them much of that undue regard to birth and rank, which is now happily effaced by our free and equal systems of government; their pe-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

culiar religious feelings and opinions led them to pay to the clergy a degree of deference, of which some faint traces yet linger in the interior of New England; and during many years the government was in fact an aristocracy as despotic as that of Venice. It is no wonder that power so unlimited should have been sometimes abused.

The portion of these volumes which will be read with the most unmingled sentiments of disapprobation, is that which describes the fate of the highminded Miantunnomoh, Sachem of the Naragansetts. We certainly think, that the conduct of the Pilgrims towards their savage brethren, though occasionally blemished with cruelty, has been too strongly and indiscriminately censured. The transactions which took place between them during the period embraced in these volumes, are marked on both sides, generally speaking, with justice and kindness. That the settlement of this country, by a foreign and civilized nation, must eventually lead to the dispersion and destruction of the aborigines, was a truth which seems to have been suspected by Sassacus, the Pequod Sachem, forty years before the war of Philip. Happily for us, the savage tribes of New England were, for a long time, too simple and shortsighted in their policy to be aware of this fact in its full force, and too little united among themselves to exert their superior power in overwhelming the colonies in their infancy. It was alike unavoidable, however, that wars should at length arise between the English and Indians, and that these should be wars of extermination. Let any one read the history of those times, with an unbiassed mind, and he will be convinced that our fathers had no choice between abandoning this country to the savage hunters, who originally roamed over it, and gaining an entire and exclusive possession of it by the sword. He must be a stanch supporter of abstract theories, who can maintain that they should have adopted the former alternative.

But however misplaced we may consider the romantic compassion, which has been sometimes bestowed on Sassacus and Philip, the determined and implacable enemies of the English race and name, we know not what extenuation can be found for the execution of Miantunnomoh. That chieftain had been the early friend of the English, had repeatedly visited the governor at Boston, and when summoned there to answer for his life, on some charges of treachery brought against him from Connecticut, obeyed the mandate and pleaded his cause before the Gen-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

eral Court, observing to his judges that 'though some had dissuaded him, assuring him that the English would put him to death, or keep him in prison, yet, he being innocent of any ill intention against the English, he knew them to be so just that they would do him no wrong.' He offered to meet his great adversary, the sachem Onkus, at Boston, and prove to his face his treachery against the English. 'He urged much, that those might be punished who had raised this slander, and put it to our consideration what damage it had been to him, in that he was forced to keep his men at home, and not suffer them to go hunting till he had given the English satisfaction.' These reasonable requests were disregarded, but after passing two days at Boston, he established his innocence to the satisfaction of his judges, and was dismissed in peace. The following year proved with how much foundation he had calculated on the justice and liberality of his English allies. In July, 1643, his relative, Sequasson, was attacked by Onkus. Miantunnomoh complained to the English, and requested permission to avenge his kinsman's wrongs. This permission was granted in the fullest and most unequivocal language. Miantunnomoh accordingly attacked Onkus with a superior force, but was defeated, and afterwards delivered up to his rival, by two of his officers. When brought before Onkus he preserved total silence. Onkus demanded the reason. 'Had you taken me,' said he 'I would have besought you for my life.' This the captive chieftain disdained to do. Gorton, of Rhode Island, and his associates then interfered in behalf of Miantunnomoh, their early friend and protector, and demanded his liberation. Onkus carried his captive to Hartford to take the advice of the magistrates there, and Miantunnomoh was delivered, at his own request, into their hands. What follows cannot be better related than in the words of Mr Savage.

'It cannot be doubted, I presume, that the captive, having in vain pressed the conqueror to put him to death, expected friendship from the English, to which his former services and recent deference gave him no slight claim. The Narragansetts made presents to Onkus; by one party these gifts are represented as a reward for delivering his prisoner to the English, by the other, as a ransom for the life of their sovereign. See governor Hayne's letter to Winthrop, 3 Hist. Coll. I. 229. Perhaps the conqueror was persuaded to surrender his prey at Hartford through the influence of Gorton and his associates, for it was at first reported,

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

that "they sent their letters in the name of the governor of Massachusetts;" but as this clause was afterwards struck out by Winthrop, it was probably a false report. Such a deception, for a benevolent purpose, might not be a heavy aggravation of the errors of ignorance, under which those heretics sank. Whatever influence, however, moved Onkus, it seems hardly possible, that he could have anticipated the joyful result of the policy of his teachers in civilization, the deliberation of pious statesmen, by which his captive was restored to his hands, with an injunction to put him to death.

'A judicial investigation of the case of this sachem should not have been undertaken; but as it was, we may look at the grounds of judgment. Trumbull, I. 130, makes part of his offence "without consulting the English according to agreement." Our author's narrative ought to have silenced such a pretence. Little importance need be attached to another allegation, "that he had promised us in the open court to send to Onkus the Pequod, who had shot him in the arm, yet in his way homeward he killed him;" nor indeed to any other part of the doubtful story about the traitorous slave of the Moheagan. By the acts of the commissioners, Haz. II. 8, we learn, that it was fully proved, from the Pequod's own mouth, that he was guilty, and therefore Miantunnomoh, if innocent, as our people, before his misfortunes, thought him, might believe his royal promise satisfactorily performed by putting to death the assassin, instead of returning him to his master. Perhaps his promise to the English, on this matter, was less distinctly understood than it might have been between contracting parties of the same language. If Onkus were, however, free from all blame, and the Narragansett chargeable with treachery, and every other vice of kings, our rulers had no cognizance of the cause, and their advice to the successful warrior was cruel; but their conduct to Miantunnomoh, who had so few years before been their ally against the Pequods, can hardly be regarded as less than a betraying of innocent blood. In the congress of the united colonies, whose doings in this behalf are briefly, but fairly, told by our author, its president, and may be seen at large in Haz. II. 11–13, it was too hastily, I think, resolved, "that it would not be safe to set him at liberty;" and as death was the alternative, in their want of counsel and confidence to come to such a shocking result, against an unarmed prisoner, who was in amity with them, advice was asked, yet of only five among fifty assembled, of the ministers of religion. The fate of Agag followed of course.'

'With profound regret I am compelled to express a suspicion, that means of sufficient influence would easily have been found

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

for the security of themselves, the pacifying of Onkus, and the preservation of Miantunnomoh, had he not encouraged the sale of Shaomet and Patuxet to Gorton and his heterodox associates. This idea had been unwillingly entertained years before I knew the comment of Governor Stephen Hopkins, 2 Hist. Coll. IX. 202, with which I close this unhappy subject. "The savage soul of Uncas doubted, whether he ought to take away the life of a great king, who had fallen into his hands by misfortune; and to resolve this doubt, he applied to the Christian commissioners of the four united colonies, who met at Hartford,* in September, 1644. They were less scrupulous, and ordered Uncas to carry Myantonomo out of their jurisdiction, and slay him; but kindly added, that he should not be tortured; they sent some persons to see execution done, who had the satisfaction to see the captive king murdered in cold blood. This was the end of Myantonomo, the most potent Indian prince the people of New England had ever any concern with; and this was the reward he received for assisting them seven years before, in their wars with the Pequots. Surely a Rhode Island man may be permitted to mourn his unhappy fate, and drop a tear on the ashes of Myantonomo, who, with his uncle Conanicus, were the best friends and greatest benefactors the colony ever had. They kindly received, fed, and protected the first settlers of it, when they were in distress, and were strangers and exiles, and all mankind else were their enemies; and by this kindness to them, drew upon themselves the resentment of the neighboring colonies, and hastened the untimely end of the young king." ' Vol. II. pp. 132–134, *note.*

Every one will regret that so few accounts now exist of the domestic customs and modes of living of our ancestors; a fact which results from the obvious circumstance, that every historian writes in the first place for his contemporaries, and therefore passes over such topics, as too familiar to be noticed. There was no Espriella among our forefathers, to admit us into their dwellings, and seat us at their firesides, and give us a complete view of the routine of their daily occupations and recreations. On these subjects we must be contented with scanty and incidental hints, a few of which may be gleaned from the work before us. The houses of the first settlers of Boston were generally, as might be expected from the circumstances of the country, extremely simple and unadorned. Wooden chimneys

* 'It should be Boston, 1643, Trumbull, I. 133, hastily says, the commissioners for Plymouth are not on record this year. Their names are signed to the acts.'

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

were common for many years, and a wainscot of clapboards in the house of the deputy governor was considered a highly censurable piece of extravagance. The house of the 'ladye Moodye' at Salem, a person of high consideration, seems to have closely resembled one of our smallest dwellings, being nine feet high, with a chimney in the centre. The furniture of the early colonists was of a rather different quality. Much of it was brought from England and was of considerable value, forming a strong contrast in this respect to the humble sheds in which it was often deposited. In an inventory of the effects of Mrs Martha Coytemore, Governor Winthrop's fourth wife, dated in 1647, we find silk curtains, brass andirons, *cheny* plates and saucers, and Turkey carpets.

Some estimate may be formed of the ordinary expenses of living from a remark in Governor Winthrop's account, dated 1634.

'I was first chosen Governor,' he observes, 'without my seeking or expectation, there being divers other gentlemen, who for their abilities every way were far more fit. Being chosen, I furnished myself with servants, and provisions accordingly, in a far greater proportion than I would have done, had I come as a private man or as an assistant only. In this office I continued four years and near a half, although I earnestly desired at every election to have been freed. In this time I have spent above £500 per annum, *of which* 200 *per annum would have maintained my family in a private condition.*'

There seems to have been no want of luxuries for the table. The country furnished fish and game in abundance, and though, says the Governor, in a letter dated, November the twentyninth, 1630, 'we have not beef and mutton, yet, God be praised, we want them not, our Indian corn answers for all,' an opinion in which, notwithstanding our regard for that highly useful vegetable, we find it difficult to follow him. Groceries were soon brought over in abundance from England, though it will be recollected that our two most valued articles of that description, tea and coffee, were not then used in Europe. We are told that at a military muster of twelve hundred men in 1641, there was not a man drunk, though wine and strong beer abounded in Boston; and we find that in 1630 the Governor began to discourage the practice of drinking toasts at table. Had he succeeded in abolishing it, what racking of invention and rummaging of memory for

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

extemporaneous sentiments might have been spared the present generation.

The attempts of our ancestors to restrain luxury in dress were altogether unavailing. It is stated, September the eighteenth, 1634, that many laws were made against tobacco, and immodest fashions, and costly apparel; but though such laws were frequently made, we do not recollect that Governor Winthrop mentions any instance in which they were enforced. Our ancestors endeavored to regulate the spirit of gain, as well as of expense, and with the same eventual success. The prices of labor and of commodities were fixed repeatedly by positive laws, but experience soon proved the utter futility of the project, though not until these laws had been executed in a few instances, especially in the case of Captain Robert Keaine, who was compelled to pay eighty pounds for taking a profit of sixpence and eightpence in the shilling, and in some small instances two for one. The state of morals among our forefathers, and the degeneracy of succeeding generations, have been subjects respectively of eulogy and lamentation from their day to ours; and we recollect a sermon of Mr Stoughton, published about the middle of the seventeenth century, in which he exclaims with great vehemence, 'our wine is mixed with water.' A close examination of this Journal may satisfy a candid reader, that such remarks are dictated in some degree by that veneration for antiquity, and discontent with the world around us, which are found in all countries and generations. The first colonists of Massachusetts were unquestionably, on the whole, a highly respectable community. Many of them, like the author of this work, were men partaking, like all human beings, of the errors and defects of the age in which they lived, and the society which surrounded them, but men of whom any country would be justly proud. They were among the best specimens of what was then and is now the best class of society in Great Britain, its well educated commoners; men superior perhaps to any of their successors in deep and extensive learning, and second to none for fervent piety, for stern integrity, and disinterested patriotism. But that all the early settlers of New England were of this description, is a supposition, which, though it sometimes seems to have been taken for granted, is manifestly absurd. There were several of the same stamp with those who find a place in every new country, needy and desperate adventurers, who hoped to find in a remote settlement, the subsistence which they were unwilling to procure by

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

honest exertion in their native land. Crimes, even of the most shocking description, sometimes occurred, and many parts of this volume bear a close resemblance to the records of our criminal tribunals at the present day. Besides, there was, even in the more respectable classes of society, a deficiency in refinement and delicacy of manners, which proves, more than any thing else, the progress of society since the seventeenth century. What modern audience would endure disclosures like those made by the Rev. Mr Cotton, at a public lecture, in Boston?

If, however, we can claim any superiority, as an enlightened and refined community, over our forefathers, let us never forget how much of this preeminence we owe to their wisdom and liberality. The erection of the venerable Universities of Harvard and Yale; the adoption to a great degree of those statutes of descent and distribution, beautifully denominated by Judge Story, 'the only true and just Agrarian laws,' which have utterly obliterated the few vestiges of aristocracy which had found a place in our land; the provisions for the support of religion, which combine so happily the interest of the public with the liberty of the individual; and, above all, the introduction of free schools; these great sources of our freedom, our equality, our intellectual and moral power, were all established, by the founders of New England, during the first century of its existence. Our fathers were no devotees of ancient prejudices, anxious to exclude every ray of intellectual light which might disclose the defects of their own political and religious systems; no crafty tyrants, laboring to establish the power of the few by perpetuating the ignorance of the many; no wild fanatics, who thought that divine truth could be only contaminated by the admixture of human learning. They were enthusiasts, indeed, but it was a dignified and generous enthusiasm, an enthusiasm which sought noble ends by noble means; it was their great object to render their posterity a religious, by rendering them an enlightened people. We may smile at the whimsical peculiarities of the Pilgrims, or lament their graver faults, but we shall show little of the boasted liberality of the present day, if we can read their annals with no other emotions than these; if we fail to render due homage to their unwavering singleness of purpose, their unconquerable perseverance, their unquenchable zeal for the dissemination of pure truth, and the prosperity of their adopted country.

We close this article, regretting that our limits forbid our rendering more adequate justice to its venerable author, and its able

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

and learned editor; but the character of Governor Winthrop is too well known to need any further commemoration, and we trust that the public will duly appreciate the patriotic zeal, which could lead a gentleman, of Mr Savage's abilities and occupations, to undertake a task requiring such patient and minute industry. We hope that his success, in the present instance, will have its due effect in inducing him to continue his important and interesting researches. The field, which he has chosen for his peculiar labors, is a true New England soil, unpromising in its aspect to a careless observer, but yielding a rich reward to the skilful and laborious cultivator.

Art. III.—*The Merry Tales of the Three Wise Men of Gotham.* Edited by the Author of 'John Bull in America.'

'Three Wise Men of Gotham
Went to Sea in a Bowl.
If the Bowl had been stronger,
My Tales had been longer.'

New York. 1826. G. & C. Carvill. 12mo. pp. 324.

Of all the sages of antiquity, whose names have been handed down to our time, none have excited so general a notice, as the three wise men of Gotham. The short fragment of the history of these unfortunate navigators hitherto known to us, which records their lamentable fate, has not been the theme of the learned antiquary and studious scholar alone, but is in the mouths of persons of every class, and of all periods of life, from lisping infancy to tremulous old age. Whether this universal interest and sympathy, is to be attributed to the sudden exit of these venerable men; to the extraordinary character of the vessel to which they committed themselves; or to the mysterious brevity of the fragment alluded to, are questions, which, considering the numerous learned disquisitions on less important subjects, we might have expected, would before this, have exercised the ingenuity of many laborious commentators. This, however, has not been the case, and the history of these distinguished philosophers has remained involved in the most profound obscurity up to this time. The documents noticed at the head of this article purport to be the memoirs of these ancient personages. To con-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

vey to our readers a just sense of their important bearing upon the present times, it is necessary to say a few words of the state of the sciences, and of public opinion, in our country at this period.

It has no doubt been remarked, that whilst all other parties among men, whether of a religious, political, literary, or any other nature, have come by the force of circumstances, from time to time, to change their character, subside, and amalgamate, the distinction between the ancients and moderns has ever remained the same, sometimes the one, and sometimes the other, claiming to be the superior in acquirements and intelligence. From a very early period, however, there has been this great advantage observable on the side of the ancients, that notwithstanding the moderns had the field to themselves, and might use what arguments they pleased, without the fear of a reply from their opponents, yet sooner or later all the moderns were found to go over to the party of the ancients, whereas no ancient was ever known to become a modern. This circumstance operated so powerfully in favor of the ancients, and by degrees so greatly increased their numbers, that the moderns a long time since, yielded up the victory to them, and freely acknowledged their own inferiority. Insomuch, that, until towards the close of the last century, these last, from generation to generation, have been accustomed, with a praiseworthy modesty, to look back upon their ancestors, who lived centuries before them, as the only genuine source of all wisdom, virtue, and science, and to consider themselves as mere children, bound to receive, and observe with reverence, the information handed down to them from earlier and wiser ages. The obscurity which time threw around the characters and writings of antiquity only served to increase their reputation; and the venerable black letter had its just influence, being ever the more respected the less it was understood. But when the great school of children of this Western world, undertook to break their leading strings, and commenced a general barring out of their masters, the froward spirit which led to this act of disobedience carried them on to still greater extravagancies, and they began to pretend that they were as wise as their ancestors.

This long exploded opinion they supported with such arguments as these. That although it could not be denied that the individuals then living, were much younger than their ancestors, who lived a thousand years before, still it was to be recollected,

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

that the world was just so much the older; and that inasmuch as a whole is acknowledged to be greater than a part, the experience and knowledge obtained by the world since the existence of their ancestors, added to that of their ancestors themselves, must plainly be somewhat greater than that of the latter taken alone. These and other like arguments operated so powerfully, as soon to bring a majority of people in this country over to that way of thinking, and to a belief that our ancestors were by no means so wise as they had been said to be. The great success and spread of these opinions, at length so inflated the moderns, that they began to lay aside all reserve, and openly to assert, that there was no science, art, invention, or discovery of any consequence which had not originated, within the last fifty years, or been so improved upon, as that they were justly entitled to the merit of it; the great advancement made in these things, they attributed to the rapid 'march of mind' within that period, and pretended to look upon the first six thousand years of the world as little better than time thrown away.

It is, however, in *three* things particularly, that the moderns boast to have utterly surpassed all that was ever done or thought of in former times, and by which they expect to secure to this age the admiration and gratitude of all future ones. The first of these is the invention of the *woman machine*, whereby the productive power of mankind in the making of cottons, kerseys, &c. is increased to a most wonderful degree, and the most important parts of female education greatly improved upon. And of this machine the moderns claim to be the original and sole inventors. Secondly, the bringing of the *common law* to a pitch of perfection, such as was never before imagined to be possible. Thirdly, the introduction and prosecution of the science of *phrenology*, a science said by knowing men to be fraught with more important consequences to mankind than any other ever before pursued.

Now upon an examination of the work before us, it appears that these three ancients represent themselves to be proficients in these very sciences which the moderns thus claim to have originated or to have perfected in these latter days. In a matter of so great importance as this, a regard, as well to the reputation of those venerable ancients, as to the just rights of the present age, makes it our duty as impartial critics, to examine and decide upon the respective pretensions of the two parties.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The learned editor in his preface gives the following account of the manner in which those remarkable papers first came to light.

'A great Oxford antiquary, of whom it has been said that he remembered whatever others forgot, and forgot whatever other people remembered, speaks of the "Merry Tales of the Mad Men of Gotham," a work in great repute in his time, when the kindest name given to a philosopher, was that of madman, a phrase which often saved him from the stake or the block. This work was long supposed to be extinct, but at length came to light, not long since, at Mr Bindley's sale, and was bought by a young American traveller for a trifle, owing to the deplorable ignorance of two munificent noblemen, who little suspected that it was the only copy in the known world, and for that reason considered it as worth nothing.'

The work is divided into three distinct memoirs or narrations, said to have been delivered individually by the three wise men during their perilous voyage, and giving a minute account of their experiences in the prosecution of the three sciences in which they were proficients.

We shall take up these several memoirs separately, in their order, and state our reasons for thinking as we do, that the learned editor has been imposed upon by some invidious modern, who having arrived at such a period of life as made it certain that he must soon become an ancient, took the opportunity, whilst it was yet within his power, to do something in favor of the party which he was about to be connected with; and for that purpose, to use a legal phrase, first pirated the most remarkable improvements and inventions of the moderns, and then held them up to ridicule. The first of these memoirs purports to be that of the '*Man Machine*, or the Pupil of Circumstances.' The account of his birth and initiation into the science of productive labor is thus described.

'I was born, began the first Wise Man of Gotham, in a country that I consider unworthy of my nativity, and for that reason I shall do all in my power to deprive it of the honor, by not mentioning its name. I am, moreover, descended from a family, which must necessarily be of great antiquity, since, like all old things, it has long since fallen into decay. My father had little or no money, but was blessed with the poor man's wealth, a fruitful wife

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

and great store of children. Of these I am the eldest; but at the period I shall commence my story, we were all too young to take care of ourselves, until the fortunate discovery was made by some great philanthropist, that little children, of six or seven years old, could labor a dozen or fourteen hours a day without stinting their minds, ruining their health, or destroying their morals. This improvement in the great science of PRODUCTIVE LABOR, delighted my father—it was shifting the *onus*, as the lawyers say, from his own shoulders to that of his children. He forthwith bound us all over to a cotton manufactory, where we stood upon our legs three times as long as a member of congress, that is to say, fourteen hours a day, and among eight of us, managed to earn a guinea a week. The old gentleman, for gentleman he became from the moment he discovered his little flock could maintain him—thought he had opened a mine. He left off working, and took to drinking and studying the mysteries of political economy and productive labor. He soon became an adept in this glorious science, and at length arrived at the happy conclusion, that the whole moral, physical, political and religious organization of society, resolved itself into making the most of human labor, just as we do of that of our horses, oxen, asses, and other beasts of burden.' pp. 21, 22.

This wise man, whose name is Harmony, goes on to give, at great length, a minute description of the science of productive labor as exemplified in the management of a cotton factory. We think it will be apparent to our readers that the object is, under the feigned name of a *man machine*, to decry and run down that most useful and remarkable invention of modern times called a *woman machine*. The more fully to show that the moderns are justly entitled to the merit of this invention, and that the slurs cast upon it by this writer are altogether groundless, we shall shortly state how, and when, this machine came first to be invented in this country; explain the mode of its construction; and briefly notice the very important uses to which it is applied.

The invention of the *woman machine*, as can be incontestibly proved, first came about in this manner. As soon as the people of this country had fairly freed themselves from the government of Great Britain, and discharged themselves of their ancestors, all classes of persons here began to thrive and multiply exceedingly, but more especially females; insomuch that our political economists suggested a fear that, in process of time, the whole country would get to be overrun with women, unless some check was put to them. Now our mechanical geniuses, casting their

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

eyes around in search of cheap materials to work with, which is a great object with them, and seeing large stores of girls in all directions apparently useless, caught the idea, that it would answer an excellent purpose to work them up into machinery, and so planned the woman machine, the mode of constructing which is after this fashion. You take from one hundred and fifty to two hundred youths, varying the number according to the intended size of your machine; they should be rather of a tender age, from ten to fifteen years is preferable, and mostly females, say not less than nine tenths. After well sorting these, you put them into a large four story building strongly constructed of brick or stone, near a considerable head of water; on the several floors of this building are to be placed various pieces of machinery, called mules, spinning jennies, double speeders, &c. Then having distributed the girls about the rooms according to your taste and judgment, you attach one or more of them, as circumstances may require, to each piece of machinery, and the whole machine is ready for use.

A machine thus prepared and put together is called a manufactory. The principal rule to be observed in the working of it, is to keep it in as constant operation as possible; the best regulated ones, not being stopped more than three times a day, for about twenty minutes at a time, to oil the wheels and feed the girls. After adhering strictly to this course for two or three years the girls are found, as it were, to become a part of the other machinery, so that neither of them can go to any purpose without being put together, any more than a wheel can go without being attached to a carriage, or a carriage without a wheel. And when the whole machine is in motion, the double speeder and spinning jenny part, appears to be just as much alive as the girl part.

The principal advantages of this machine, as enumerated by the inventors, appear to be these; that a great part of the machinery, as before mentioned, being made out of a very cheap material, goods can be manufactured by them at a much lower rate than in the old way, and so our English and other competitors derive from our market. That by this mode of educating females, four of the principal natural defects in their characters are eradicated, or greatly lessened; which has never before been known to be effected by any other course of education; namely, first, a frequent restlessness and fondness for running about; secondly, a too free use of speech; thirdly, a constant desire for med-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

dling in other persons' concerns to the neglect of their own; and fourthly, a manifest indisposition to the wholesome control and authority of parents, husbands, and guardians; for the curing of which defects, some dozen years' steady exercise in one of these machines is said to be a most valuable and certain specific, so that it is confidently expected, that by a very general establishment of them, the world will shortly become a very quiet and peaceable place, that all riotous, routous, and noisy assemblages will cease, and that, excepting at Congress and in the state legislatures, excessive talking will only be persisted in when it is to some purpose.

From this statement our readers will plainly see that this machine is unquestionably of modern invention, and that so far from failing to accomplish the purposes contemplated, it promises to be of the greatest advantage to society, whether viewed as a most useful seminary for the education of females, or a cheap manufacturing machine.

The second memoir is that of *Quominus;* and it narrates the great exertions and sacrifices he made, in pursuing the study of the Perfection of Reason, otherwise denominated the *Common Law*. He thus introduces the subject.

'"My brother Harmony," said Mr Quominus, the second Wise Man of Gotham, "has fallen a sacrifice to the perfectibility of man; I, on the contrary, am a martyr to the Perfection of Reason. I was born in a country, where they have sufficient wisdom to make their own laws, but not quite enough, as it would seem, to understand them afterwards. In order to remedy this singular inconvenience, they resorted to a method equally singular, and original. They enlisted the wise men of other nations in their behalf; and justly considering that it was quite a sufficient effort of human wisdom for one country to make its own laws, they determined to resort to another for their interpretation. Accordingly, they made a vast number of laws, believing they could not have too much of a good thing, and then sent beyond sea to get them explained. In a couple of hundred years, these explanations, being all carefully recorded in books, amounted to upwards of three thousand volumes of goodly size, containing upon an average, each, one hundred contradictory interpretations of different wise men. Such a mass of wisdom, and such a variety of opinions, supported by such unanswerable arguments, never got together under the same roof in this world. Some very aged persons, who had lived long enough to get about half through this invaluable collection, discovered that it was like the sermon that

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

suited any text, and the text that suited any sermon; for every man could find in it a decision, or at least an opinion, to suit his purpose. A system so supported on all sides, by all sorts of opinions, certainly merited the honor of being called a science; and such a science, as certainly, deserved a respectable name. It was accordingly aptly denominated THE PERFECTION OF REASON, because it furnished every man, however different his opinions might be, with reasons in support of them.

In addition to this great requisite of every perfect system, namely, that it should suit every body—this accumulation of contradictory opinions, it was affirmed, possessed another irresistible claim to the dignified appellation it had obtained. It cannot be denied, said the admirers of this science, that although the laws are expressly devised to settle such disputes, or conflicting claims, as might otherwise occasion a resort to force, still it is never the intention of a wise legislator, that people should actually appeal to them for this purpose. They are merely to be held up *in terrorem*, or rather like buoys, to float on the surface of society, for the purpose of warning mankind of the shoals and quicksands below. In this point of view, then, it is apparent, that the more intricate and inconsistent the laws, and the more various and contradictory their interpretations, the greater delay and expense there will be found in settling appeals to them, and consequently the number of lawsuits be greatly diminished. Thus, when the laws become perfectly unintelligible, they are absolutely perfect, for then nobody in their senses will go to law, and the science will do its duty after the manner of a scarecrow, which frightens the birds from the corn, merely by flourishing its unintelligible rattle. Thus you see, that no other name than that of the perfection of reason, could possibly have suited this excellent science.' pp. 145–147.

And here again our readers will perceive, if they take the trouble to go through the narrative, that the sole object of it is to ridicule that most important and most ancient of all sciences, the common law, and particularly the great improvements made upon it by the moderns.

Nor ought we to be greatly surprised at such an attempt. Experience shows us, that let a science be carried to any state of perfection, however great, there are always found persons enough prepared to pick out some defects in it. For at all periods of the world two principal paths have been pursued in the attaining of distinction, which, though widely apart at their setting off, are found to lead out to the same eminence. The one of these is followed by doing well ourselves, and the other

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

by finding fault with everything well done by our neighbors. Which latter being by far the easier road, is therefore much the more frequented.

A very hasty sketch of the principles and foundations of the common law, and of the most remarkable improvements made upon it within a few years, will convince any one of the incorrectness of the views which this memoir would give of that distinguished science. 'Municipal law, or the law as applicable to particular societies,' the learned Mr Justice Blackstone says, in his Commentaries, vol. i. p. 34, 'is properly defined to be, a rule of civil conduct prescribed by the supreme power in a state, commanding what is right, and prohibiting what is wrong.' It must be apparent, therefore, to the smallest mind, that the essential requisites of good laws are these; first, that they should be reasonable and applicable to the times and to the persons upon which they are to operate; and, secondly, that they should be plain, and an acquaintance with them easily to be come at by all parts of the community. We shall proceed to show that these requisites are most remarkably conspicuous in the common law, and, indeed, are the grounds of that just preference which is given to this over the civil and statute law.

And to the first point we will cite what is laid down by the learned Lord Coke on this subject, namely, 'that the common law is the very perfection of human reason.' And this, to the minds of all enlightened jurists, at once settles the matter, my Lord Coke being considered the very oracle of the common law, and no equal authority being to be found to the contrary. But in respect that many of our readers may not be so well versed in the legal rules of reasoning, we shall no doubt more satisfactorily prove to them the reasonableness of the common law, and its especial applicability to the present state of the world, by stating the fact that these laws are not written rules, as our statute laws are, and so liable to mistakes in the printing, and to the interpolations of interested persons, and the misconstructions of feeble or perverse minds. Nor have any of them been made in modern times, so as that they might be fashioned to suit any particular parties, persons, or purposes. But they are a collection of customs, never committed to writing, but handed down to us by tradition, and were first adopted, nobody knows when, why, nor by whom. And, as Mr Justice Blackstone says, 'the maxims and customs so collected are of higher antiquity than memory or history can reach, nothing being more difficult than

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

to ascertain the precise beginning, and first spring, of an ancient and long established custom.' And so my Lord Hale says, 'The original of the common law is as undiscernible as the head of the Nile.' And indeed in this seems to consist the very essence and excellency of these customs, for so soon as any one can ascertain the commencement and original reason of them, they cease to be good law, as see Blackstone's Commentaries, vol. i. p. 70, 'So that if any one can show the beginning of it, it is no good custom.' From which preceding remarks and authorities our intelligent readers are no doubt fully satisfied that the common law is admirably well adapted to our times, and in the highest degree reasonable, for although the learned Mr Christian in his notes upon the Commentaries, alleges, that 'it cannot be dissembled that there are decisions drawn from established principles and maxims, which are good law, though such decisions may be manifestly absurd and unjust,' and that 'precedents and rules must be followed, even when they are flatly absurd and unjust,' thereby plainly hinting that these precedents and maxims are sometimes absurd and unjust, yet fortunately the learned Blackstone himself has furnished us with a very ready way of getting over such difficulties, 'for,' says he, speaking of the rules of the common law, 'though their reason be not obvious at first view, yet we owe such a deference to former times as not to suppose that they acted wholly without consideration;' which key to the proper understanding and due digestion of many rules of the common law, has been of infinite assistance, and is much used, in the study and practice of that science.

Having thus satisfactorily disposed of the first point, we proceed to show how easily an acquaintance with this law may be attained to. Now these rules of the common law, upon a due knowledge and observance of which the life and property of every member of the community in a great measure depend, are not, as we have before observed, written out and collected in one or more books or sets of books, as the civil and statute law are, so that a person should have occasion to know how to read, and reflect, and reason, in order to come to a knowledge of them; but very happily for us are stored up in the breasts of divers learned judges, whence they are to be extracted by a certain process, called a case in court; so that any one who has a desire to be informed of his own rights, or those of his neighbor, in any particular, instead of tumbling over musty books, to

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

the great waste of his time and injury of his eyes, has only to set about such a process, in which he is very kindly and willingly assisted by gentlemen of the bar, so called, (great numbers of whom are always at hand, ready for such undertaking) when after a few years constant attendance upon courts, and the laying out of several small sums of money, not worth mentioning, he will obtain a sufficient knowledge of the point in question, by a regular decision of the judges. And this course of inquiry being free to every one, rich or poor, high or low, all classes and members of society have by these means an equal opportunity of enjoying the laws of their country. Nor ought we to neglect mentioning here what puts this mode of acquiring a knowledge of the law greatly before every other, that, for several sufficient reasons, the legal information, once obtained after this manner, lays such good hold upon the memory as seldom or never to be forgotten for the rest of one's life.

But notwithstanding the plain excellencies of the common law, many persons said, and perhaps it may be thought with some reason, that if people were only able to ascertain what the law was after it was decided against them, it was no better than *ex post facto* law, and therefore contrary to all justice; and that all the rules and maxims of the common law ought to be collected and written out plain in some book, so that any person might go to it and suit himself, according to his case. Upon which, and many other like suggestions, it was set about to improve the old system. And this was done in the only feasible way, namely, by creating at once a great abundance of new judges, of all sorts and kinds, from whom, by a constant employment of them, all the rules and maxims of the common law might in a short time be extracted. In addition to these, numerous learned reporters were also appointed, whose duty it should be, to write out at length, and publish under their own hands, the decisions of the judges. By which judicious means these said rules and maxims of the common law have now got to be so well collected and reduced to writing, that it is thought Congress will shortly have to set apart one of the western territories for the sole purpose of storing away the numerous books of reports containing them; after the manner of a careful housewife, who is always known to appropriate some one chamber in her house to the purpose of a rubbish room. Nor did this rapid extraction of the common law fail of producing the advantages expected from it. For it often happened before this, that when persons who chanced

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

to fall into some small dispute with each other, came to examine into the law on the subject, they either found no adjudicated cases at all, touching the question, or if any, they were very like to be all on one side of it, which greatly disappointed one of the parties and much discouraged useful judicial investigations. Whereas since the better settlement of the law by the multiplication of valuable reports, numerous decisions may be found, not only applicable to every case that can arise, but also to every side of it, so that both parties apply with equal confidence to the legal tribunals, and are said to be *rectus in curiæ*, or to stand right in court, which, freely rendered, we understand to mean, start fair, it being impossible to conjecture on which side the weight of law is, until all the cases are regularly cited by the counsel and counted by the court.

These striking improvements on the common law as administered by our ancestors, raised such an enthusiasm in favor of the new system of things, that even the judges themselves fell in with it, and began to make experiments, so that notwithstanding it had always heretofore been the received opinion, and still is, we believe, in the mother country, that the wisdom of a judge lies principally in his wig, and that he might as well appear upon the bench without his head upon his shoulders, as without his wig upon his head; yet in their warmth, with one accord, and in the face and eyes of all precedents, they pulled their venerable hair wigs off their heads and converted them into seats, in the shape of hair cushions, alleging that the administration of justice was thereby rendered much more easy.

But of all the sciences cultivated in these times, the sublime science of *Phrenology* is that upon which the moderns most pride themselves; a science calculated to give us a perfectly new view of mankind. To attack this important science, the favorite of distinguished heads, seems to be the aim of the third and last memoir.

The name given to this wise man is *Le Peigne*, and he describes in the following extract his unexpected and extraordinary meeting with the first phrenologist.

'My brother Harmony, began the Third Wise Man of Gotham, has, it seems, been shipwrecked in pursuit of the Perfectibility of Man; and my brother Quominus has fallen a victim to the Perfection of Reason, or the Wisdom of Ages, I can hardly tell which; I, on the contrary, am the martyr of science.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

'I was born and educated in the most scientific, literary, and philosophical city in the world, for the women were all blues and the men metaphysicians. In truth, I may say, with perfect veracity, there were so many people running after science, that there were not sciences enough for them to run after. The business was overdone; the game was exhausted, as in countries too thickly settled and too much cultivated; and nothing was left for them but the invention of new sciences, to give them employment. Besides, such had been the unwearied industry, the deep sagacity, with which they had pursued the old sciences, that they had driven them from their most secret recesses; detected all their arcana; exposed their occult mysteries; and, in fact, pulled them by the ears, as it were, out of every hole and corner where they had entrenched themselves for ages. Strangers, who were allured to the city by the fame of its learning, observed with astonishment, that the women could call every thing by its scientific name, and that even the very children talked nearly as wisely as the best of them. Learning, science, and philosophy were becoming vulgar, insomuch that several people of the highest rank and fashion, began to study ignorance, and actually sent their children to school to unlearn every thing. It was high time, therefore, for the lovers of science to begin to look about them; for the writers and lecturers upon the old Grey Beard mathematics, philosophy, botany, and chemistry, instead of an audience of pretty fashionables, with nodding plumes, were content to confine their instructions to classes of rusty students, who actually came for no other purpose than to learn. The fashionable young ladies began to yawn at conversations where they met to relax themselves with political economy and metaphysics; and a universal alarm prevailed, when a great heiress, who was considered the bulwark of the blues, backslided, and married a regular dandy, with a thin waist and no learning.

'It was high time to get up something new for these people, and as the natives of our isle are more apt to improve upon the inventions of others than to invent anything themselves, I was selected by a coterie of philosophers, and sent out into the world to discover a new plaything for these grown up children of knowledge. I travelled, and travelled, and travelled, as the storybooks say, over divers countries that have neither latitude nor longitude; I visited all the colleges, scientific institutions, and bedlams; sought out the most learned and adventurous philosophers of christendom; consulted the Pundits of India, the Chingfoos of China, the Dervises of Turkey, and the Jugglers of the Flathead Indians of the Missouri. In short, I ransacked the uttermost ends of the earth, and was returning disconsolate, through Ger-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

many, to my native city, with a firm conviction that there was nothing new under the sun, when an unexpected adventure befell me on the eve of a long day's journey.

'Owing to various untoward accidents, one of which was the lameness of my horse, I had been overtaken by twilight in the midst of the forest of Teutoburgium, not far, as it afterwards proved, from the spot where Varus and his legions had been cut off by the German hero Arminius. As the night gathered thick around me, obscured into Cimmerian darkness by the overarching shades, I became more and more confused and uncertain of my way. I heard the growling of bears, the howling of wolves, the hooting of owls, and the shrill whistle of the bandit, mingling with the sighing and moaning of winds as they wandered in the impenetrable shades. At length my progress was arrested by a cold and heavy hand, forcibly applied to my mouth, with such excellent aim, considering it was so dark, that it stopt it entirely and prevented me from calling for help, had I bethought myself of doing it. So forcible was the blow, that it knocked me from my horse, and I lay on the ground for a few moments insensible to everything around me. As I gradually recovered, the pain of my fall, the loneliness of my situation, and the apprehension that the bandit would return with his companions, and finish, perhaps, what he had begun, overcame me entirely, and I groaned at intervals aloud. Nothing for a time answered me, but the dismal echoes of the forest, and once or twice the neighings of what I snpposed my own horse, who had wandered to a distance. At length, however, my cries were answered by a voice which seemed close to my ear.

'"Who and what art thou, that thus wanderest alone, at midnight, on the spot where the bones of tens of thousands have been bleaching for ages?" cried a hollow and tremulous voice.

'"I am a pilgrim," exclaimed I, "from a far distant country, travelling the earth in search of a new science."

'"Thou hast hit the nail on the head," replied the invisible voice. "Follow me, give me thy hand, thou art a lucky man, and hast been born, without doubt, with a silver spoon in thy mouth."

'"But my horse," quoth I.

'"He is safe," replied the voice, taking me by the hand. As I lifted it to my lips in token of thankfulness, I started back with horror.

'"It smells of mortality!" cried I.

'"True—It hath handled nothing but the bones of Varus and his legions, for more than thirty years."

'"Art thou a sexton?"

'"No."

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

'"A grave digger?"

'"Follow me, and thou shalt know."

'I again gave him my hand with trembling reluctance, and we struck to the right in a direction towards a dim light, which till now escaped my notice. After proceeding some distance, we approached the entrance of a cave, which descended gently into the bosom of the earth, through a passage dimly lighted by a lamp, leading into an apartment that struck me with inexpressible dismay. It was a charnelhouse of skulls, which I took for granted appertained to thousands of murdered wretches, made away with by a band of robbers, of which this wily old wretch was the stool-pigeon, or chief, I hardly knew which. His whole appearance was a composition of supernatural horrors. There did not seem a drop of blood in his body, or an ounce of flesh on his bones. His eye, deep sunk in his head, glimmered dimmer than the half expiring lamp which obscured rather than illuminated the passage by which we had descended; and his cheeks, for want of the support of teeth, had sunk in on either side, and met together lovingly in the roof of his mouth. His head was without a single hair, and the glossy surface of the skull, divided by lines into different compartments, like the divisions of a map. Each of these was numbered after the manner of sheet maps, teaching children geography. "Gracious heaven!" exclaimed I, mentally, "he is not only a robber but a necromancer! perhaps one of the infernal quizzical imps of Number Nip! perhaps the wooden demon himself. This forest has long been famous for evil doings, and these lines and figures are doubtless the spell by which this diabolical caitiff works his infernal ends." I cast my eyes from the necromancer to the paraphernalia by which he was surrounded. Nothing was seen but skulls piled up in various recesses, or lying about in horrible confusion, so that at every step, they rolled beneath my feet, and grinned in my face, as if in scorn of these impotent injuries. The rest of the embellishments of this Golgotha, have escaped my recollection, for as I continued to stare around, my courage deserted me, my senses wandered, and I trembled from head to foot.

'"Thou art cold and doubtless hungry too," said the old mystery of horror—"I was inhospitable not to offer thee something to eat."

'He then arose and went to an obscure part of the cave. "He is gone to prepare for me the feast of the worms," thought I, "or perhaps he will presently invite me, like the ghost in Don Juan, to an entertainment of shin-bones and petty-toes. Would I were home again, and perish all new sciences." Presently, however, he returned, and to my very agreeable surprise, presented a piece of

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

cold venison, some bread, and a flaggon of beer. "Eat, drink and be merry," quoth he—"for to-morrow I die!" responded I, inwardly, with a sigh. However hunger is lord of the world, and will swallow up fear, when he is sharp set. I fell upon the venison, and ate as if it were my last; I swallowed oceans of beer, in hopes it would infuse into me a portion of Dutch courage, but in vain. While I was taking my meal, the necromancer or whatever he might be, was examining a large skull, divided and marked in like manner with his own, and apparently comparing it with mine, while he ever and anon exclaimed—

"Bless me!—astonishing!—wonderful!—one would think they had belonged to one and the same person!—Pray, my good friend, if you can stop eating for one moment, tell me, had you ever any other head on your shoulders than the one you carry now?"

"Not that I know of," replied I.

"Astonishing—curious—remarkable—never saw such an identity—wit—locality—amativeness—philoprogenitiveness—ideality—wonder—acquisitiveness—concentrativeness—adhesiveness—cautiousness—tune—size—weight—coloring—language—comparison—casualty—love of approbation—order—combativeness, and what not! I would give thousands for your skull. Why, sir, you must be a universal genius. You have the finest collection of organs in the world. You are a poet, a mechanic, a chymist, a philosopher, a musician, a lover of children, an artist, a metaphysician, and anything else you please, besides."' pp. 237—244.

A very few words will be sufficient to vindicate this remarkable science from the aspersions thrown upon it in this memoir.

It had always heretofore been supposed since Adam first showed his face in the world, that the passions, propensities, and mental qualifications of a man were best expressed by the front side of his head, whereas this science teaches that they are only to be correctly judged of by the backside; thereby entirely changing the face of things, and clearly showing that our ancestors have all along been looking upon the wrong side of them. Which sufficiently accounts for the slow progress the world has been making until within a few years past; and also for the sudden start it has lately taken.

It has ever been a universal sentiment that the most important study of mankind is man; notwithstanding which, and the great apparent opportunities we have of examining individual character, such have been the peculiar difficulties of the subject, that a very imperfect knowledge, after all, has ever been obtained of

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

it. For before the practice of phrenology, the most approved means of judging of a man's character was by observing his conduct; which could only be conclusively determined upon after he had closed his life, nor was this test a perfect one; for who could decide how the same person would have acted, exposed to the operation of different circumstances. And, indeed, it is one of the tritest maxims, that so far from easily ascertaining the character of others, it is one of the severest tasks to become acquainted with our own. Now, through the help of this science of phrenology, all such difficulties are at once done away with; and by a mere glancing of our eyes, or even momentary application of our fingers, to the heads of our neighbors, we are as certainly informed of what they can and will do, as by our experience of what they have done. Thereby changing future time at once into present; a thing which people at all times of life have continually desired to do, but never before been able to effect, unless it may be a few learned grammarians.

We have not time to notice all the beneficial changes which this science is expected to work in our customs, manners, and laws; they may, however, in some small measure, be judged of by a single instance. To take a principal one in the law. A man commits a murder; society is put in great terror, and to great expense and trouble in catching the felon and bringing him to justice, when after all he may get off, for the want of sufficient evidence of the fact, and commit half a dozen more like crimes before he can be legally hung; it being a rule of some of our courts not to punish a man for any offence before he can be proved to have committed it. Now observe the effects of this science;—a man in walking the streets, riding in a stage coach, sitting in the theatre or anywhere else, sees a person before him with a fully developed murder bump on the back of his head; he immediately gives secret information of the fact; the criminal is forthwith seized without having an opportunity to escape; and this being a matter of easy proof, he may be tried, condemned, sentenced, and executed off hand. For it certainly is a matter of equal justice whether you hang a man before or after the crime, provided only you are satisfied that, if left unhung, he would be sure to commit it; and moreover the being beforehand with him, has this great advantage, that you thereby save the life of the murdered person.

But we might as well attempt to count the stars, as to enumerate the various excellencies of this wonderful science. Nor is

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

it necessary. The obvious advantages of having an accurate chart of every man's character drawn out upon his head for general inspection must be sufficiently apparent.

Having thus explained the origin and the important uses of the several sciences which are attempted to be decried by the book before us, we hope we have convinced our readers that these memoirs are in fact the offspring of some dissatisfied modern, and not the productions of the three distinguished ancients to whom they are attributed. But if we should have failed in this, still there is one science of great and increasing repute at the present day, not noticed in these memoirs, and which has so plainly grown out of the prevailing opinions of these times that we cannot but think that the claims of the moderns to it are unquestionable.

We refer to the novel science of inversion or transposition. As soon as our late peace with Great Britain had set the people of this country at their ease, and given them an opportunity of turning their attention to peaceful and speculative subjects, having, as we before observed, effectually discarded their ancestors, they began soon to examine with a careful and scrutinizing eye the foundations and merits of many of the old established opinions and principles received from them, and which had for centuries past controled the minds and influenced the conduct of mankind. Among these, their attention was particularly attracted to that universal and long continued custom among men of always keeping the head uppermost; and the philosophers and wiser sort gave out, that this was nothing more than an old prejudice, and a very injurious one, and no more natural to man than to other animals, but only a foolish fashion of our ancestors, which ought to be immediately corrected. And they said it was so far from according with the nature of things and the order of the universe to have the head always uppermost, that the most approved and received theories of the motion of the planets and the diurnal rotation of the earth showed that mankind ought to be heels over head at least half the time. These opinions were immediately caught up and assented to by such politicians as were of the prevailing party at this time in the country, who said that the usurpation, tyranny, and infringements upon the rights of the people, which had vexed the political world for so many ages, were chiefly owing to some persons carrying their heads too high. The medical men, too, assisted in attempting to reform this custom, and gave it as their decided opinion that it was to this bad habit

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

of keeping the head always uppermost, that most of the mental and bodily disorders of mankind might be traced, and particularly that worst one of all, called dyspepsia.

In pursuance of these opinions, and in order to effect as rapid and radical a change of this mischievous habit as possible, corporations were formed, and schools established in our principal cities, called Gymnasiums, where all those who had hitherto been going head over heels to the injury of their health, the distress of their friends, and the detriment of society, might endeavor to mend their ways by learning to go heels over head. The same system of education, after mature examination, has also been introduced, as we are informed, into some of our most distinguished universities, where it is said to have taken the place of the Hebrew and other dead languages, it being a general opinion, that if much of the time which has heretofore been bestowed upon the heads of the youth there, had been devoted to their heels, their proficiency would have been more apparent; so that at these venerable seats of science you may daily see learned philosophers, professors, and alumni with their heels where their heads used to be, to the great admiration of spectators, the advancement of science, and the manifest improvement of undergraduates.

We cannot close our remarks without expressing our thanks to the learned editor of these documents, for the great and continued zeal he manifests in composing or editing such works as tend to show the real state of improvement of this country in the arts, sciences, and general civilization. And if he should have been deceived, as we think he has, in attributing these compositions to the three venerable philosophers, whose memoirs they purport to be, still they have their good effect, in this, that they raise the suggestion, whether, how much wiser soever than our ancestors we moderns may think ourselves, we shall not best show our wisdom by saying but little about it; inasmuch as it happens every now and then, that some relic of a former age, which, like the Herculaneum manuscripts and Milton's essay, has been buried for centuries among the ruins of a lost town or the rubbish of an overgrown library, and has so slipped through the fingers of the intermediate generations, accidentally falls into our hands, and gives us some reason to doubt whether the great march of mind in our day, may not, after all, have been in a circle.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ART. IV.—*Observations on the Growth of the Mind.* By SAMPSON REED. Boston. 8vo. pp. 44.

PERHAPS there has been no age, since the world was established as the abode of man, so generally confident of progress, and so full of anticipations of further advancement, as our own. It looks back on the ages that are past, and asserts that it is wiser and better than they. It looks forward on the ages to come, and acknowledges that they will far surpass it. Though proud of its superiority, it is generous and impartial in its pride, for it is prepared and willing to be excelled. It is conscious of its abundant acquisitions, but it has been taught by many of these, that there is more to be acquired; and it calls, with a voice of disinterested hopefulness, on the still nobler and more successful exertions of future time. This voice of the age, feeble and stifled in many regions of the earth, rings out with an earnest distinctness from those districts in which mankind are the most intelligent and free, enjoying the greatest share of light and the greatest liberty to make use of it. Never was the voice so loud, so united, so cheering.

We join in it with all our strength. It is to us the voice of reason and truth. It is our nature proclaiming its origin and its destiny; it is experience holding high converse with futurity; it is deep calling unto deep. For melancholy auguries we have no faith; and for the outcry against innovation, no reverence. We hold courage to be wisdom, and confidence to be true philosophy. We do not doubt, nor fear.

And yet we think, that amid the prevailing excitement of the times, there may be occasionally discerned something like extravagance, a passion for the unreal and undefinable, a straining after improbabilities; as if there were no bounds to human power, no limit to its capacities. There is a disposition in some, who have observed the attainments already made by the human mind, to employ their fancy in searching out all possible attempts and improvements, in all the provinces of art and intellect.

It is a matter of course, that such a disposition should be developed by the fermentations and powerful workings, which have been going on in society. But we find fault with it on two accounts. The first is, that its indulgence is a useless employment of time. It is as idle, as it is easy, to sit down and foretell that

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

such and such great things may come to pass. It is far more difficult, and far more useful, to go to work in perfecting some improvement already commenced, or in producing some actual and available invention. In our opinion, the man who adds ever so little to the real stock of human knowledge, or actively engages in diffusing and enforcing the undoubted laws of virtue, is beyond comparison a more valuable member of society than the man who merely imagines future glories and attainments, just within the precincts of possibility, but which even he himself who imagines them, cannot clearly explain. The second objection which we entertain against this romantic disposition, is, that it is regardless of the checks which do and always must operate to retard the march of improvement, and of the visible limits within which the Creator has confined the human intellect.

If we stop for a few moments to take a glance at some of these checks and limits, it will not be because they are not obvious, but because they are so, and that being so, they are nevertheless overlooked and disregarded in the flights of wild conjécture.

We may notice first, the boundaries and successive stages of life. Its utmost extent is but a short period for any considerable advancement in the wide field of knowledge; and appears much shorter, when we reflect how small a portion of it can be devoted to vigorous and effectual exertion. What a long blank is denoted by those words, infancy and childhood! What a large portion of life is consumed in learning how to use the hands, the feet, and the tongue! Years pass away before there is strength in the body or discretion in the mind. Years pass away before the simplest elements of knowledge are imbibed, or a moiety of that learning is acquired which has been in the world for centuries. We all begin the race of existence on the same line; we start from the same post; ignorance and helplessness are the inevitable commencement of all that is human. The first lessons of the spelling book are as incomprehensible to an infant, as the Principia of Newton, or the Analogy of Butler. Then youth comes, as it always has come, and always will come, fiery, passionate, reckless, headstrong; refusing counsel, confiding in its own wisdom, and contradicting the best established dictates of reason, prudence, and experience. The most perfect system of instruction imaginable can only in some measure restrain, but it cannot eradicate youthful passion; it

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

may point out the safe path, but it cannot prevent the communication between temptation within and temptation without, which is continually suggesting deviation, and encouraging departure. You may look forward, therefore, to what age of the world you will, and there will still be infancy and childhood to be taught the rudiments of all that is known, and youth as strongly impelled as ever by those forceful passions which are kneaded into our very clay.

The middle period of life is somewhat sobered and subdued. It has learnt most of what is useful, and is prepared to take up and carry forward the great work of improvement. But even in this period, how much time is seized upon by the common cares and wants of humanity. The ground is to be tilled; the sea is to be traversed and fathomed; the body is to be clothed and fed; children are to be maintained and educated and provided for. Where will be the end of this? There will be no end; in the nature of things there can be none. These will be the great occupations of man while the world stands. The chain which binds him to earth is strong and heavy and immutable; its links were forged in the beginning; they are wrought out of the necessities of his nature.

Old age is the season of quiet and rest, of repose after labor and fatigue, of peace after contention and tumult. The veteran retires from service, and seats himself by his hearth, and hangs up his arms. He may repeat the story of his battles, but we do not expect to see him again in the field. Old people are generally satisfied with what was done in the time of their activity; and not only so, but they are persuaded that nothing more and nothing better is to be done. We admit that there are exceptions; but the rule is well established on fact. They are indisposed to exertion; it is natural that they should be; as the frame wears out, the spirit becomes exhausted. They think everything is accomplished in the cause of humanity, of which the cause is susceptible; and this too is natural, for their own part is performed. If death intervenes not, the second childhood follows; an emptier blank than the first, because it is imbecility without promise.

What rational person can predict any sudden improvement, while these are the appointments of the different stages of life? Why should we roam beyond those limits of our nature which were fixed on the day when man was created, and which will remain till the end of his allotted abode on earth?

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

But we have not yet spoken of prejudice, which acts like a law of moral entail, and brings down error from one generation to another. Nor of diversity of intellect, and opposition of opinion, which keep truth in a perpetual balance, and divide and parcel out falsehood among all classes and denominations. Nor of interest, which sways a man downward, and binds his heart to his treasure. Nor of pride, the champion, who is always ready, with visor down and lance in rest, to do battle for self.

These are not temporary obstacles, which may be hereafter removed out of the road of improvement. Improvement is forever to make its way over and through them; for they belong to the soil, and rise up in it on all sides and without end.

But great men come forward, from time to time, and make great discoveries; and when they die, they transmit the fruits of their invention, not to children, but to men, who are able to appreciate, apply, and increase them. How many such heirs will they find? How many who can claim even distant kindred with them? What portion of mankind understand the works of a great astronomer, or a great metaphysician? And out of that portion how many are there who can correct and enlarge them? It needs but little arithmetic to compute their number; they may all be counted on the fingers. And the knowledge of the few is slowly and in small quantities imparted to the many. It is long before the simplest results of their labors are apprehended by the mass of mankind. What ocean floods and cataracts of light must be pouring and rushing down from a single constellation of the heavens; and yet what spare threads of the glorious stream reach us here below, and how many years they have been on their silent descent.

But there are bounds to the most adventurous and expansive intellect; heights which it cannot scale; depths which it cannot sound; holy and mysterious recesses of nature, at the fast doors of which it has knocked anxiously and repeatedly for admission, and the hollow echo within has reverberated the notice, that there was no entrance there. What mind has conceived of a never beginning and never ending eternity, beyond the primary and most general definitions? Or of boundless space; or of the principle of gravitation; or of the essence of the Deity; or the manner in which he lives, creates, and rules? Who shall reconcile the Divine foreknowledge with human free will? Take the sword to the knot, and cut it, and declare that men have no liberty, that they are not free agents, because God has determ-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ined all their actions for them; and still you have to reconcile necessity with accountability, and inform us why a man should be punished, either here or hereafter, for a sin which he was foreordained to commit. It is true that they who have written books on these subjects, and have taxed all their ingenuity in attempting to solve the problems contained in them, have thought that they have indeed worked out a solution; but we do not see it; the world does not see it; there is no approximation to an agreement in the controversy. We are by no means of opinion that such investigations are useless; but we do think that they will be endless.

And how should our researches be rewarded with perfect success, when we are so imperfectly acquainted with that which is the agent in making them? We talk of mind and its final triumphs. What is mind, and where is it? What information can the mind give us of its own simple nature? As little as it can of the nature of Him who formed it. It cannot tell us whether it is an independent substance, entirely distinct from matter, or whether it is a system of results from material organization. The anatomist may search and dissect, with his nicest instruments, from the surface to the innermost marrow, and when all is over, he knows just as much of the nature of man, as he does of the next bird or quadruped which may come under his knife, and no more. He knows not even what life is, nor how it begins, nor how it is suspended, nor on what it depends. One has his theory; another has his; the very word is a confession of ignorance.

How does mind act upon matter, if it is really separate from it; and how is it connected with matter and affected by it? Why do the diseases of the body sometimes lay the mind in ruins, and sometimes pass over it, and leave it upright and strong? But it is idle to multiply these questions. We return to the primitive assertion; it is not known what mind is. We pretend not at present to take one side or the other of the controversy; only we hope that we shall never dogmatize on either. We think it probable that the question will never be satisfactorily determined, however positively it may be argued.

We would not disturb faith, nor check its generous and holy aspirings. Yet it gains nothing in our eyes, we confess, when it becomes visionary or assuming. A meet companion for it is humility; and nothing is better adapted to assure their fellowship, than a view of the near boundaries of human knowledge.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

We remain, as we began, the advocates of human improvement; firmly convinced that knowledge has been and now is in a progressive state; that in some directions it may advance almost indefinitely; and that happiness and virtue are likewise increasing on the earth. It is only necessary, as it seems to us, to name the bare names of peace, liberty, toleration, equality, and charity, to prove how much more generally these subjects are understood than they used to be, and how much this diffused understanding of them has conduced to the security, dignity, and enjoyment of man.

Why then have we spoken of limits, doubts, ignorance, and frailty? Simply that a proper apprehension might be entertained of human powers, and of the objects to which they may be most safely and productively applied. It is important that we should know where to devote our exertions; what is to be accomplished in its due order and degree; and the best manner in which it is to be effected; so that life may not be spent in speculation, nor genius wasted in revery. The inquiry of the philanthropist ought to be, what is *now* to be done; not, what is to be done a thousand years hence. In this manner he not only renounces the thraldom of old authority and prescription, and assumes that something is to be done, but he feels himself called upon to contribute his own immediate exertions.

If we look around us to discover what are the great moral improvements which principally distinguish our own age, we shall find that they consist not so much in invention as instruction; not so much in the promulgation of original knowledge, as in the diffusion among many, of that which had long been the property of a few. We presume that Jeremy Taylor entertained as clear an apprehension of the principles of toleration and religious liberty as is entertained by any one at the present day; but those principles are now understood by a thousand, where they were understood in his time by one; and the consequence of this consentaneous adoption of them is, that they are beginning to be extensively and thoroughly practised upon. Milton perceived the value of education, and its important effects on the community, as clearly as we do; but how many are there who now enjoy the privilege of abundant instruction, who, if they had lived when he lived, would not have been able to read the word of God, or to write their own names.

And that which has been so happily supplied, is still the demand. The great call of the age still continues to be for the

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

wider dissemination of existing knowledge. The crying want of society, morally and intellectually considered, is, not for any striking discoveries from individuals, but that the multitude should be raised up to the same attainments which well instructed individuals already possess, and which have been possessed by a scattered few in almost every period of recorded time. Let us infuse into the community at large, precisely the faith and the morals which have been formerly professed and practised by a small and disconnected company, and we may look on all indefinite schemes and visions with indifference. What greater thing could come to pass, than that all men should be made as rationally pious and practically religious as was Locke, for instance, to say nothing of his less attainable characteristics? Yet all that would be new in this case would be the universal conformity to a known exemplar. Let us try to lift up as many of our fellow beings as we can to this, or any other exalted moral standard. Here is the sphere of our worthiest labors. Here is the task which may gloriously employ the powers of the most gifted and accomplished minds. The happiness of the world is to be expected from the liberal communication of sentiments, views, principles, and motives, which are already in the world. The path of duty is right onwards; and it must conduct to successively higher stages of improvement, so long as it is honestly and steadily pursued. There is much before our very eyes, and within the compass of our plain ability, which needs to be altered, perfected, or destroyed. What are the best ways of securing these visible objects and advantages? We must search for them. This is a part of the labor; and in this respect, we allow, there is an urgent and almost constant call for invention; but the invention of means and not of ends; the finding out how that which is already invented, may be made common and useful; how prejudices, which have long been under suspicion and displeasure, may be safely banished from the realms of faith; how old knowledge may be most easily, acceptably, and beneficially introduced to the young mind; how the best principles may be made the predominant ones; how the practice of that which is received, may lead to the establishment of that which is hoped for.

Thus the objects of effort and invention come plainly and bodily into our presence, and appear in a practicable position and form. We are no longer misled by fancies and dreams, either our own, or other men's; theory submits to the ordeal of

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

proof; and the genuineness of improvement is confirmed by the signature and seal of experience.

Diffusion and dissemination, therefore, are the great designs of the age. Invention is their servant and minister. It is no vain show which is in progress. The gold of the treasury must be yet more widely thrown out among the crowd. The heaps of the granary must be yet more generously distributed among the dwellings of the poor. The time has come, when men must have the truth, and the whole truth; and they ought to have it. The old notion, that there may be one belief for the multitude, and another for the initiated, now seems to be more glaringly false and empty than ever, and should be indignantly dismissed by every honest man. One simple, serious conviction should take its forfeited place, and be the counsellor of all our exertions; the conviction that whatever is most reasonable and proper should be attempted and carried through, without even asking the question whether it is new or whether it is old, whether it makes its appearance for the first time to day, or whether it has been acknowledged through a long line of generations. We must look steadily to that which is right, and then we shall no more despise what is old, in a temper of hasty vanity, nor be haunted by the fear of what is new, which, of all fears, is the most unworthy of a mind which pretends to be free, or desires to be just.

It will be readily perceived from the tenor of the foregoing observations, that we have no objection whatever to originality and boldness, or to anything which wears a feature of improvement. It will also be perceived that our impressions of human life and human nature are such, that we place little confidence in extravagant anticipations, and give little respect to mystical and cloudy revelations of the future.

It is not, therefore, against any novelties which there may be in Mr Reed's pamphlet on the Growth of the Mind, but against its indefiniteness and mysticism that we shall lay our charges. We honor the apparent purity of its purpose, the spirituality and the independence of its character. We admire the force and beauty of much of its imagery; we are pleased with the general peculiarity of its style, which sometimes throws an air of originality over the thought which it dresses. But if he intended it to inform and instruct the public mind, or even to accompany the progress of the present time, we cannot doubt that in these respects he will be disappointed; among the number

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

who will seriously attempt to understand it throughout, there will be few who will succeed.

For ourselves, we found it a difficult matter to get through the fortyfour pages of this work, within double the time which we usually bestow on the same quantity of words. We do not suspect the author of intentional obscurity, but we doubt whether, if he had tried, he could have wrapped up his meaning in a thicker mantle of darkness than that which now invests it. This arises in part from what seems to be the mysticism of a peculiar religious faith. It arises in part also, from the want of a visible connexion between the several propositions of the work. There is no regular succession of clearly defined steps, leading the reader to a firm conclusion. Thought follows thought, and image treads hard upon image, like a hastily assembled crowd, who keep in motion, but without precisely knowing the quarter to which they should go. The author, indeed, proposes to himself an object, but if he keeps it in his own view, it is more than we were able to do, for we often lost sight of it entirely.

'It is the object,' he says,' of the following pages, not to be influenced by views of a temporal or local nature, but to look at the mind as far as possible in its essential revealed character, and beginning with its powers of acquiring and retaining truth, to trace summarily that developement which is required, in order to render it truly useful and happy.' p. 6.

This is sufficiently distinct, and prepares us to expect something like regularity and a lucid order; instead of which we are presented with a set of deep metaphysical discussions, almost every one of which might stand by itself as an independent essay, and almost any one of which, as it seems to us, might be struck out, without being missed. The first dissertation is on memory. With a part of this we were quite favorably impressed; for it is intelligible and true. It concerns the connexion between the memory and the affections.

'There is the most intimate connexion of the memory with the affections. This connexion is obvious from many familiar expressions; such as, remember me to any one, by which is signified a desire to be borne in his or her affections—do not forget me, by which is meant do not cease to love me—get by heart, which means commit to memory. It is also obvious from observation of our own minds; from the constant recurrence of those subjects which we most love, and the extreme difficulty of detaching our

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

own minds or the minds of others from a favorite pursuit. It is obvious from the power of attention on which the memory principally depends, which if the subject have a place in our affections requires no effort; if it have not, the effort consists principally in giving it a real or an artificial hold of our feelings, as it is possible if we do not love a subject, to attend to it because it may add to our fame or our wealth. It is obvious from the never fading freshness retained by the scenes of childhood, when the feelings are strong and vivid, through the later periods of life. As the old man looks back on the road of his pilgrimage, many years of active life lie unseen in the valley, as his eye rests on the rising ground of his younger days.' pp. 6, 7.

The second dissertation is on time. 'What is time?' Mr Reed asks twice; and after a deal of refinement and subtilty, he answers that it is nothing at all. 'Out upon time!' exclaims Lord Byron, in a passage which some of our English brethren think very fine; 'Out upon time,' he repeats; and Mr Reed has taken him at his word. Father Time is severely handled; his scythe is snapt; his hour glass is broken; and he himself is banished. In the course of this process, we were first carried back in imagination to those pleasant academic scenes, in which we were accustomed, in affirmative and negative array, to prove our youthful powers on that venerable personage, and his old brother, Space. At length we grew bewildered. We saw Time fold up his wings. Our grandfathers were our brethren; we became in our dream contemporary with the patriarchs, and shook hands with Adam, and touched our hat to the last man. But when we came to ourselves, we were forcibly struck with the justice, in this case at least, of the Scotchman's definition of metaphysics. 'Metaphysics,' said the shrewd Northerner, 'is twa men talkin' thegither. He that's listenin' does na ken what he that's talkin' means, and he that's talkin' does na ken what he means himsel.'

Seriously; if Mr Reed intends to be useful, and that he does so intend we have no doubt, he must be more perspicuous and intelligible in what he writes for the public. Whatever is, or is to be 'the growth of the mind,' he must accommodate himself better to its present state, for we apprehend that it is not yet able to profit by his disquisitions on its powers. We are anxious that he should take our advice, because he appears to have that within him, which, if properly directed, might exert a strong and healthful influence on others. The following passages, though

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

tinged with the prevailing mysticism of the piece, are eloquent and beautiful.

'The natural world was precisely and perfectly adapted to invigorate and strengthen the intellectual and moral man. Its first and highest use was not to support the vegetables which adorn, or the animals which cover its surface; nor yet to give sustenance to the human body—it has a higher and holier object, in the attainment of which these are only means. It was intended to draw forth and mature the latent energies of the soul; to impart to them its own verdure and freshness; to initiate them into its own mysteries; and by its silent and humble dependence on its creator, to leave on them when it is withdrawn by death, the full impression of his likeness.

'It was the design of Providence, that the infant mind should possess the germ of every science. If it were not so, they could hardly be learned. The care of God provides for the flower of the field, a place wherein it may grow, regale with its fragrance, and delight with its beauty. Is his providence less active over those, to whom this flower offers its incense? No. The soil which produces the vine in its most healthy luxuriance, is not better adapted to the end, than the world we inhabit to draw forth the latent energies of the soul, and fill them with life and vigor. As well might the eye see without light, or the ear hear without sound, as the human mind be healthy and athletic, without descending into the natural world, and breathing the mountain air. Is there aught in eloquence, which warms the heart? She draws her fire from natural imagery. Is there aught in poetry to enliven the imagination? There is the secret of all her power. Is there aught in science to add strength and dignity to the human mind? The natural world is only the body, of which she is the soul. In books, science is presented to the eye of the pupil, as it were in a dried and preserved state; the time may come when the instructer will take him by the hand, and lead him by the running streams, and teach him all the principles of science as she comes from her maker, as he would smell the fragrance of the rose without gathering it.' pp. 19, 20.

But what can be more irrelevant to the author's subject, what can be more unnecessary and useless, than the tilt which he soon after runs against rhyme.

'It may be peculiar, and is said with deference to the opinions of others, but to my ear, rhymes add nothing to poetry, but rather detract from its beauty. They possess too strongly the marks of art, and produce a sameness which tires, and sometimes disgusts.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

We seek for them in vain in nature, and may therefore reasonably presume that thay spring out of the peculiar state of the public taste, without possessing any real foundation in the mind itself; that they are rather the fashion of the dress, than any essential part. In the natural world we find nothing which answers to them, or feels like them—but a happy assemblage of living objects springing up, not in strait lines and at a fixed distance, but in God's own order, which by its apparent want of design, conveys the impression of perfect innocence and humility. It is not for that which is human to be completely divested of the marks of art; but every approach towards this end, must be an approach towards perfection. The poet should be free and unshackled as the eagle; whose wings, as he soars in the air, seem merely to serve the office of a helm, while he moves on simply by the agency of the will.' p. 25.

True it is that every man has a right to his opinion and taste concerning rhyme. This we readily agree to. But why, in a treatise on the growth of the mind, it should come under such cruel censure, we can see no reason. And how the mind or the morals are to be benefited by the exclusion of rhyme from poetry, is to us incomprehensible. We confess ourselves partial to this kind of music; for music it certainly is. We wage no warfare against blank verse, or any other species of poetry; but we should regard the disuse of rhyme, as anything rather than an improvement. This however is not the place for a defence of it; nor was Mr Reed's pamphlet the place for an attack upon it. We introduced the passage, because we intended from the first to deal plainly with the writer, and with his whole performance; and to show how beauty in it was succeeded by defects, and defects were mingled and conjoined with beauty; to show how a singular acuteness was accompanied by a strange want of precision; how boldness fought in vain in the darkness, and usefulness was marred by mystery.

We should not have dwelt thus long and thus seriously on the 'Observations,' if we had not considered it in some respects a performance of more than common merit, and had not entertained a sincere respect for the talents of its author. If we have indulged a little in remarks which were other than serious, it is not because we would cast a slight upon his opinions, but because we thought that some of them were inappropriately introduced, and enigmatically expressed. His love of nature, his unaffected piety, his high and manly sense of liberty, his confidence in hu-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

man progressiveness, and his longings after a higher and better state of the world than that which it now exhibits, are entirely delightful to us, and induce us to hope for some future production from his pen, in which we shall find more matter for admiration and less room for complaint.

ART. V.—*Some Account of the Life, Writings, and Speeches of William Pinkney.* By HENRY WHEATON. New York. G. & C. Carvill. 8vo. pp. 616.

MR WHEATON's book had been long enough before the public to have required, perhaps, a notice in our last number. We were the less anxious about the delay, however, as its interest is not of a transitory sort, but allied with a great and abiding name. That of Pinkney must attract a curiosity, as permanent as the tradition of his eloquence, and as the juridical records in which it so often and conspicuously recurs.

Of a life so engrossed by strenuous intellectual labor, all students especially, in every department of knowledge, will be desirous to know something. They will be curious to learn, whether these extensive conquests in the domain of professional learning were accomplished by irregular and abrupt incursions, or by methodical and disciplined approaches; what influence they cast on his temper and habits; and innumerable minute particulars, which are interesting only from their connexion with genius. Many a doubting aspirer will seek, in the life of such a man, wherewithal to solve the question so often debated betwixt ease and glory, how far these trophies of learned fame are worth the cost of their acquisition. Readers of this description, and all, indeed, who love to observe conspicuous genius nearly and familiarly, complain that the present volume is by no means so abundant in those characteristic touches, from which we love to combine for ourselves the portrait of genius, as might have been expected from the celebrity of its subject, and his recent death. The life of the studious and the contemplative seldom furnishes, it is true, that variety of interest which arises out of one of action and business. But Mr Pinkney, they observed, was not merely a closet man. He was conspicuous, and the subject of

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

some obloquy, on the political theatre; he was long engaged in negotiations full of expectation and interest, which brought him into contact with some of the most distinguished men of the age; he travelled in famous and classical countries; and the results, too, of these advantages, and of his untiring application, were not read silently in books, but were heard in courts of justice, and in senates, where they may be supposed to have left vivid and various impressions on the auditors. Many anecdotes, they think, illustrative of the character formed, and of opinions gathered, during this busy course of action, must be floating among his contemporaries, which, had they been more industriously sought by his biographer, would have relieved the dry and documentary air of his book.

All this is very specious, but we are not sure that it is entirely just. The circumstance, that Mr Pinkney resided so long abroad, removed him from among his contemporaries at home; and his habits of life and thought were such, when in this country, as to bring him scarcely more under their close observation. But, besides this, who would think to measure the interest of a biography, by the importance of the part, which has been played by its hero? A Reynolds in this respect surpasses a Hume. Even where the theatre is the same, the parts equally serious and important, and the personages inseparably connected in the eyes of mankind, a Pitt shall leave scarce any traces of himself, but those which are engraved by the pen of history, while a Napoleon shall bequeath us the most ample and interesting of all the memoirs of men. Some accident of circumstance, but more often of character, determines this point beyond the control of the most gifted biographer. The title of Mr Wheaton's work is very unpretending. The work itself presents us, however, with some interesting fragments of the correspondence, writings, and speeches of a very remarkable man; and it is as wise, perhaps, to thank him for having collected and preserved what might otherwise have perished, as to amuse ourselves with disquisitions on what he might have done. We shall proceed therefore, from our author's volume and from a few inconsiderable gleanings of our own, to throw together some brief notices of the character of this celebrated jurist, in connexion with a hasty sketch of the principal events of his life.

William Pinkney was born at Annapolis, in Maryland, on the 17th of March, 1764. His father, whom he always spoke of as a man of firm temper, and of a strong and original cast of

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

mind, was an Englishman by birth, and took the part of the parent country during the revolution. The boyish ardor, or wilfulness, of young Pinkney was pleased with the adoption of opposite sentiments; and one of the freaks of his patriotism was to escape from the vigilance of his parent, and mount night guard with the soldiers at the fort in Annapolis. He retained, to the end of his life, a strong partiality for his native town, and took a pleasure in pointing out to his intimates, especially the young, the scenes of his childsh toils and sports. His early education was imperfect; but this was less owing to the narrow circumstances of his father, who spared no pains for his son, than to the disturbed state of the times. His private teacher, Brathand, left the country on this latter account; and the affection, which his pupil always continued to entertain for him, was warmly reciprocated by the preceptor, who, after the lapse of several years, expressed the greatest pleasure at meeting in England an acquaintance of Pinkney's, and was eager in his inquiries about him; 'one of my greatest regrets,' said he, 'in leaving America, was that I had to part from my promising pupil.'

They, who remember him at this period of life, describe him as already animated by that impatience of a superior, which characterized him at a later day, and which was, in some sort, both the strength and the weakness of his character. This temper was not confined to the rivalries of study, but extended to the rougher competitions of boyhood. One anecdote of the former he used to relate of himself, as a *ruse* which might be pardoned in a youth. There was a debating club in the town, of which Pinkney was a member. A question had been assigned for a certain evening, when all the polite company of the place was expected to attend; and our orator repaired early one morning to a secluded place in the vicinity, to prepare himself in solitude, against the coming occasion. His antagonist in the debate, who was also his chief competitor in the club, was there, however, before him; and our young aspirer took the benefit of some friendly skreen to overhear his declamation unobserved. 'The result,' said he, 'was brilliant. In the evening my antagonist's speech, which was well enough seasoned with rhetoric, was received with acclamation. But when I came to make my *extempore* reply, which I had very earnestly prepared during the day, I was at home, as you may guess, on every point. The night was mine, and thenceforth I was king of the club.'

It was a like display of rare talents in another society of the

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

same kind, which determined him to seek his fortune at the bar; and, like Chancellor King, and the late Master of the Rolls in England, he was indebted to the notice and friendship of discerning genius, for this fortunate change in his views. At the time we speak of, he was a student of physic under Doctor Goodwin, then an extensive practitioner in Baltimore, and was one of a small debating society of students of medicine, at one of whose meetings the late Judge Chase of Maryland happened to be present. Struck with the genius, the musical voice, and the energetic manner of Pinkney, as yet a mere lad, and quite unknown to him, he earnestly advised him to the study of law, inviting him to Annapolis, and offering him the free use of his library, and whatever other aid he could afford him. Under this not least distinguished of the eminent lawyers who have been the boast of Maryland, Pinkney was deeply imbued with 'the learning of the realty,' and in special pleading, that logic of the law, of which he afterwards became a master; and in 1786 he removed to Harford county, in his native state, to commence there the practice of his profession.

From this time he rose rapidly in public confidence and honors. He was chosen in 1788 a delegate from Harford to the state convention, which ratified the constitution of the United States; and, in the October of the same year, a member of the house of delegates. In 1790 he was elected to Congress; a station, which for professional reasons he declined; and he was several years a member of the executive council of Maryland. He was afterwards a delegate from Anne Arundel county, having removed to Annapolis, the county town, in 1792. He had married in 1789, the sister of Commodore Rodgers, a lady who still survives him. His professional assiduity continued, meantime, unabated; and while he held a distinguished rank in the councils of his native state, he rose gradually to the head of its bar. In his dress and personal habits, at this time, he was very wide of that niceness and minute precision, which, on his return from Europe, distinguished him, perhaps, to affectation. He indulged freely in the use of the 'sovereign weed,' and cultivated his popularity by mingling carelessly with his rustic constituents. At a later day he was very far from admitting society on the same easy terms, and punctiliously affected all the outward observances, which he conceived to belong to the manners of a gentleman, and to denote a perfect knowledge of high breeding.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

In 1796 he received a flattering evidence of the public sentiment in his favor, in an unsolicited appointment by Washington, as one of the commissioners for the United States, under the seventh article of Jay's Treaty with Great Britain. He accepted this appointment, but not without reluctance, and embarked for London with his family, where he arrived in July of the same year. In the questions, which arose in the adjustment of the claims under this article of the treaty, 'his opinions,' says his biographer, 'were finished models of judicial eloquence, uniting powerful and comprehensive argument with a copious, pure, and energetic diction.' They are collected in the second part of Mr Wheaton's work. He was engaged at the same time, in adjusting the claim of the state of Maryland, to certain stock in the Bank of England, of which he succeeded in making a satisfactory arrangement.

Of his observations on this new theatre, and at a period, too, of great political interest, we find little in the fragments of correspondence collected in the present volume. The extent and perfection of the arts of life, the active industry and splendid wealth, which he found in England, produced on him the usual impression. 'I have seen much,' he says, 'that deserves the attention of him, who would be wise or happy.' He was present at the debate in the House of Commons on the rejection of Bonaparte's overtures for peace in 1800, and often mentioned Mr Pitt's speech on that occasion, as the most powerful and eloquent he had ever heard. Of that energetic politician he always spoke as the greatest man he had ever seen, while Fox, he seemed to think, was much overrated. But he doubted the power of the allies to force the ancient dynasty on France; an event, which, though eventually accomplished, was postponed so long, and with such important effects on the condition of Europe, as to justify his doubt, and to beget suspicion of the policy of the memorable statesman, who led the combined force of Europe to the attempt. His strong inclination to his professional pursuits, rendered Mr Pinkney very impatient of the delays of the commission, and anxious to return home; but his wishes in this respect were not gratified till August 1804, when he arrived in America, improved, indeed, in knowledge, but embarrassed in circumstances, and with the 'dreary prospect,' to use his own words, 'of commencing the world at forty.' Shortly after his return, he removed to Baltimore, and attended, for the first time, the Supreme Court of the United States at Washington. In

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

1805 he was appointed attorney general of Maryland, and prosecuted, for a time, the labors of the bar, with unwearied assiduity, till the growing differences of this country with Great Britain, on the subject of neutral trade, brought him again on the theatre of diplomacy. In April, 1806, he was appointed, by Mr Jefferson, Minister Extraordinary to the court of St James, to arrange, if possible, in conjunction with Mr Monroe, the resident minister there, the many important questions then at issue between the two cabinets, or, we should rather say, the two countries, as the interest, which they excited on both sides of the water, was diffused and violent in the highest degree.

The progress, and unfriendly issue of this memorable negotiation, are familiar to most of our readers. That Mr Pinkney shared, in its full extent, the solicitude which was felt in this country, is discernible in the tone of his correspondence, and might be inferred from the perplexing circumstances, in which both the government of the United States, and its agents in France and England, were placed by the conflicting usurpations of these two powers. At this day, when we perceive that a war under such a conjuncture was inevitable, and have gathered from it so many fortunate results to public rights and national reputation, it is perhaps to be regretted that our disputes were not sooner referred to the arbitrement of arms. Many circumstances however, some of which it is not very pleasant to recall, led our maritime enemy into mistakes, both as to the spirit and strength of this country, and no doubt deferred the step which we took in the end. Had it not been for these circumstances, the instructions to our ministers at St James's would have been less conciliatory, for taking the tone of which, in his communications with that cabinet, Mr Pinkney has been sometimes accused of want of firmness and decision. To this subject Mr Madison alludes, in a passage of their correspondence quoted in the work; from which it may be gathered, also, that neither was insensible to the dissatisfaction, which was felt at some parts of Mr Pinkney's intercourse with the British government. Meanwhile our niggard frugality towards our foreign embassies, was adding pecuniary embarrassment to the other cares of his weary and responsible post. His youthful earnings were dissipated, while 'the prime of his life was passing away in barren toil and anxiety.' It is thus that he writes to Mr Madison; and he adds, in another letter, 'the compensation (as it is oddly called), allotted by the government to the maintenance of its representatives

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

abroad, is a pittance which no economy, however rigid, or even mean, can render adequate.' Under these circumstances he solicited his recall; and took his audience of leave at Carlton House, in February, 1811, expressing the regret, which he probably felt with some acuteness, that his efforts to effect a good understanding between the two countries, had proved so unavailing. He arrived at Annapolis the following June, and war was declared a year afterwards.

From this period commences the most brilliant part of Mr Pinkney's career, and that which was most akin to his own taste, and to his particular endowments of mind. Having availed himself, with singular diligence, of the opportunity which his residence in England afforded him, to become familiar with the forms and practice of its courts, and having consecrated to his favorite study all the leisure, which he could steal from less congenial employments, he returned to our courts fraught with all the resources which, experience, reflection, and intimate converse with the most eminent lawyers and civilians of the time, may be supposed to have added to a vigorous and fertile genius. In the progress of our maritime war, many interesting questions of public law gave scope to his learning and ability; and the aid that he contributed to the erection of the system of Prize Law, which, in the absence of precedent, the Supreme Court was under the necessity of building up, is prominent in the judicial records of the times. In the December succeeding his return, he was appointed, by Mr Madison, Attorney General of the United States, and held the post till January, 1814, when, a bill having been introduced into the House of Representatives, requiring the residence of that officer at the seat of government, he resigned his office as incompatible, under such a restriction, with his other engagements. He had previously been chosen to the Senate of Maryland, and in 1815 he was elected from Baltimore, as its Representative in Congress. During our short but harassing war with Great Britain, he commanded a battalion of militia riflemen, and was severely wounded at the affair of Bladensburg.

In March, 1816, he was once more called to a diplomatic station, being appointed Minister Plenipotentiary to Russia, and charged also with a special mission to Naples, at which city he landed in July, 1816. The business of this mission was completely evaded by the artifices of the Neapolitan court, who hastened his departure by pretences, which they had no diffi-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

culty to lay aside when he was fairly out of Naples. He proceeded through Rome, and the other principal Italian cities, to Vienna. Some difficulty had arisen at this time with the emperor of Russia, from the arrest of Kosloff, the Russian consul general in this country, in consequence of which Mr Harris, our Chargé d'Affaires at St Petersburg, had been forbidden to appear at court; and Mr Pinkney doubted the propriety, under such circumstances, of presenting himself in Russia as the American minister. But learning at Vienna, that this affair had been arranged, he proceeded, by a long and comfortless winter journey, through Poland to St Petersburg. He remained there about two years, and returned finally to the United States in 1818. In 1820 he was elected a senator in Congress from Maryland, in which post he delivered his celebrated speech on the Missouri Question, and took part in the preliminary discussions on the Bankrupt Bill. Neither had years nor travel diminished the ardor of his professional pursuits. On the contrary, he continued them, if possible, with still greater eagerness, endeavoring, he said, 'to compensate for the little of life that was left him, by economizing it more.' To this feeling his anxiety to make provision for his family contributed, as much as his unquenchable love of reputation. But death surprised the champion in his vigor.

It is well known that he spared no toil in the study and management of his causes. On the seventeenth of February, 1822, he was attacked by a severe indisposition, in consequence of an effort of this sort. He had over exerted himself in the investigation and arguing of a case in the Supreme Court, in which he felt peculiar interest.

'He mentioned to a friend that he had sat up very late in the night on which he was taken ill, to read the *Pirates*, which was then just published, and made many remarks respecting it, drawing comparisons between the two heroines, and criticising the narrative and style with his usual confident and decided tone, and in a way which showed that his imagination had been a good deal excited by the perusal. From this period till his death he was a considerable part of the time in a state of delirium. But in his lucid intervals, his mind reverted to his favorite studies and pursuits, on which, whenever the temporary suspension of his bodily sufferings enabled him, he conversed with great freedom and animation. He seems, however, to have anticipated that his illness must have a fatal termination, and to have awaited the

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

event with patient fortitude. After a course of the most acute suffering he breathed his last on the night of the twentyfifth of February.' pp. 171–172.

Thus terminated the life of William Pinkney, a life so shared between public business and studious labor, that the hasty sketch which we have given, comprises nearly all its prominent incidents.

At his death he had not quite completed his fiftyeighth year, an age at which men begin to regard the termination of life, as an object not very remote. But his person was yet robust, his complexion florid, and his general appearance such, aided as it was by the studied carefulness of his toilet, as to give a strong impression of vigorous health and tenaciousness of life. The force of his faculties too, which were not only unimpaired, but seemed only then to have attained full ripeness; the brilliancy of a career in which, though so long a victor, he was every day winning fresh laurels by fresh exertions; the very keenness of his relish for these gathered fruits of his fame, and for the charms of a life eminently successful; all these, as they appeared to promise a long postponement of the common fate, rendered it more affecting to the imagination, when it thus suddenly arrived. Apparently, however, he did not himself regard the seeds of his fate as so far from their developement. His sanguine temperament, and plethoric habit of body, led him to apprehend a sudden decay of life, or, at least, of his faculties; and he has been heard to speak of the fate of the celebrated Luther Martin in this particular, as not unlikely to be his own. He was spared, however, this worst of the maladies of age. He did not linger through those melancholy displays of imbecility, which are caused by the receding tide of life, but seemed to rush to the termination of his course, as the busy torrent dashes onward to the sea.

His death produced, both in the metropolis and through the country, a deep and remarkable sensation. We call it remarkable, because it is seldom that mere professional renown, disconnected as it is from popular passion, obtains for itself, in so great a degree, this last and melancholy reward of genius. Nor can we impute it, certainly, even in the case of the remarkable individual in question, though he had rendered distinguished services at the bar, in the senate, and in diplomacy, to any fear that the business of either would suffer a pause from his death. The theatre of *busy* life never wants actors, and few are they, who may flatter themselves, that their exit will produce either

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

disorder or vacancy in the scene. These losses of society, however grief or flattery may declaim on such occasions, are for the most part little felt, or speedily repaired. Other talents, till then crowded from the stage, or unkindled by reward, press forward in the ever eager competition; and we daily see the tomb close on virtue and genius, with as little perceptible effect on the great social machine, as on the sun and the breeze, which are feigned in the elegy of poets to darken, and sigh over their decay. It is a very few master spirits, that have the fortune to weave the destinies of their race with their own, and to derange or suspend the business of life by their fall. We must refer, then, to a more poetical source, our emotion on the death of one of these intellectual heroes. Perhaps the harsh contrasts, always suggested by death, are heightened by our conception of the mental power and activity which belong to genius. We contemplate with pain the extinction of this subtle spirit, the defeat of its eager aspirations, its insensibility to its slow won honors, this sudden and wasteful dissipation of the gathered treasures of thought and knowledge. There was something astounding in the hasty close of a career characterized, like Mr Pinkney's, by such untiring energy to the last, and animated by the consenting applauses of partisans and competitors. He seemed to be cut off *in medio spatio*, while men yet looked for other triumphs, and ere he had reached, in his fervid course, the regular and appointed goal.

Few men ever earned these 'garlands of the tomb,' by a more inflexible pursuit of them through a whole life. In him the zeal of reputation was not one of many impulses obeyed by turns, and exciting him at intervals to unusual exertions. It was, as we believe it almost always has been in those who have far outgone their fellows, ever present and predominant, urging him, even more than that appetite of knowledge which grows by what it feeds on, to the perpetual accumulation of his intellectual stores. His emulation was infinite. 'I never heard him allow,' said a friend of his, 'that any man was his superior in anything; in field sports, in music, in drawing; especially in oratory, on which his great ambition rested.' As this eager ambition thrust him early into the career of action, so it never seemed in any degree abated by success. It was the *pabulum* of his life; and, as if to verify a notion of medicine, the stimulant itself at length brought the decay of the spirit, which it had fed and vivified; for he sickened in the act of emulous exertion.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

In this respect, his whole life is a lesson to those ambitious spirits, that, like him, are consumed with the 'fever of renown,' and that would learn by what efforts continually repeated, by what earnest and fervent toil, the abrupt summits of fame, and more emphatically of legal fame, are overcome.

While in England, and indeed during all his residence abroad, Mr Pinkney applied himself indefatigably to law studies. He seems to have appreciated justly his own mind, and, though diverted from the bar for a time by diplomacy and politics, to have inclined to it constantly, as to the proper theatre of his particular abilities. Of his acquisitions in the vast and various field of professional learning, it would be idle in us to speak. But it will not be uninteresting to mention, that the wealth of his mind was never so unostentatiously displayed, as in those unpremeditated disquisitions, which, as *amicus curiæ*, or in the progress of a cause, he was frequently called on to make. It was remarkable to observe at such times, how his knowledge seemed to have 'passed out of his memory into his judgment;' in what abundance he heaped his analogies before you; and with what a precise logic he made them converge on his point.

With all these previous accumulations of knowledge, he approached every new cause with the ardor of one, who had yet his reputation to earn. 'He was never satisfied,' says his biographer, 'with exploring its facts, and all the technical learning which it involved.' Nor was he inattentive to its rhetorical embellishments, noting, even in the fictitious works with which he amused his leisure, or, to speak more justly, recreated his mind for new efforts, any allusion or image that could be turned to account. Towards the end of his life, he devoted himself almost wholly to intellectual exertion of some kind. 'Thought,' to borrow the phrase of one who knew him well, 'appeared to be the very breath of his mind.' Study was necessary to his spirit, and so far from laborious, that when not engaged in it, or in some active corporeal exercise, he evinced very restless and uneasy feelings. On journeys, he read constantly in his carriage, and even studied his causes there. A life thus wholly 'dedicate to closeness, and the bettering of his mind,' did not require that methodical distribution, which inferior minds resort to, as a substitute for the power of constant application; nor did his various engagements permit it. His hours of study varied with his circumstances; but they increased progressively with his age. He slept little, and always with a light in his chamber;

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

and might be heard stirring there at the earliest dawn, often retiring to bed again after several hours' reading. He ate rapidly, drank wine freely at his meals, but never sat long at table, except on special occasions; and could retire at all times to his study with a mind disposed to severe labor.

His general attainments were very considerable, and he was ambitious of showing, that he had wandered wide of the severe limits of technical learning. He knew well the Latin classics, and had been familiar with the Greek; but the latter we are disposed to think, he neglected in later life. Of French literature his knowledge was extensive. He was especially well versed in ancient and modern history, and in the belles lettres generally. Out of the natural sciences, in which it is believed his attainments were inconsiderable, he seemed to have read all the standard works of our language; and most of this miscellaneous learning he acquired abroad. Of his literary predilections we recollect only a few. Johnson, if he had a preference, was his favorite prose writer, chiefly, perhaps, because he thought his elaborate and elevated style a proper model for an orator; and Shakspeare, Pope, and Milton were his chosen poets. In the copy of the last in the possession of his family, all the remarkable passages are underlined; and he quoted them with readiness from memory. Comus he distinguished as the best sustained of English poems, in the elegant and 'curious felicity' of its diction, and was fond of reciting aloud the passages, which he thought most remarkable for harmony or sonorousness. He piqued himself on knowing critically the elegancies of his own tongue; and, though he probably overrated his taste, his knowledge on this point was minute. His table was generally furnished with half a dozen works on prosody, and as many dictionaries; and he had a fancy for coining new words, or reviving obsolete ones, and then defending them by analogy, or by the authority of the classics. Of his *euphuism*, for so we may call it, which he sometimes displayed at the bar, to the annoyance of his less *literate* brethren, he has left a somewhat diverting record. It is a copy of a bulky dictionary published some years ago in this country, all grievously underscored, and full of marginal remarks, petitions, and interrogatories addressed to the author, written with playful spleen, and craving to know the reason of the multifarious impurities which he had cast into 'the well of English undefiled.'

He possessed, in an eminent degree, that robustness of con-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

stitution, which is hardly less necessary in study, than Napoleon deemed it in war. On this point he displayed some vanity, and was very solicitous of personal nicety, on the score both of health and appearance. His recreations were mostly of the same robust sort; he was attached to field sports, and excelled in them; and, though he seemed almost indefatigable, generally returned from his sporting excursions overcome with fatigue. But as he was of a sanguine melancholy temperament, he was apt to fancy himself ill. At such times he diverted himself with games of skill, in which he was a proficient, such as chess, draughts, and the like. He was once quite a capital billiard player, and seldom met his equal in whist. In England he amused himself very much with his children, mixing occasionally in their most childish sports. He used there to draw, for one of his sons, almost every night, and, what perhaps few persons know, he handled the pencil like a master. He assisted, moreover, in teaching one of his daughters music, to which task he brought a good deal of skill, and an admirable ear. He was fond of the best novels, and, by way of mental dissipation, sometimes liked to hear the worst; and when exhausted in mind, or depressed in spirits, would listen to any trash, romances from the Minerva press, French novels, and fairy tales. We have frequently seen him at the theatre, sitting out the worst plays, so bad, indeed, that he could be entertained only by their absurdity; and next day he would amuse himself with writing a *critique* on the performance. The company of young persons, especially those of talent, was very attractive to him; and when occasion presented itself, he was pleased to do them any service. When they were assembled at his house, he would saunter from his study to the adjoining parlor, mingle in the topic or the jest of the moment, and then return. This he would repeat a dozen times in an evening.

The reader perhaps may be pleased to compare these recollections of his private pursuits and habits, with those from another source. The following passage is from a letter written by a friend of his biographer, who was a good deal in his society at St Petersburg.

'I arrived in St Petersburg in the month of June, 1817. I carried a letter of introduction to Mr Pinkney from our friend, Mr Justice Story. Mr P. received me at once with the greatest kindness and hospitality. He told me almost the first time I saw him, that he should not make a single dinner for me, or receive me with ceremony; but if I would consider myself a member of

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

his family, and take a seat at his table constantly, when not otherwise engaged, he should be gratified. As I soon found he was in earnest, I accepted his offer almost to its full extent. I passed about two months in the city, lodging at the same hotel with him, and domesticated with his family. I saw him every day, and at almost every meal; and the recollections I have of the pleasure enjoyed in his society, are amongst those I shall longest retain.

'Of his past life he did not speak much. I inferred, however, that he had always been a hard student, and considered himself a laborious and thorough scholar in those branches of human knowledge to which he had more particularly devoted himself. I remember that he once said to me, that he considered the late Mr Chief Justice Parsons and himself the only men in America who had thoroughly studied and understood Coke Littleton. He appeared to estimate the legal acquirements of our professional men as of little extent, generally speaking, and to think he gave himself but little credit in thinking that he had learnt more law than any other man in the country.

'He kept himself very much in private, living so (as he said) from motives of economy. He was in lodgings at the Hotel de l'Europe, and saw no company ceremoniously—that is, he gave no dinners, &c. He had made it known to the diplomatic circle there when he first arrived, that he should live in that style, and therefore could not reciprocate their civilities. They, however, visited him a good deal, and he accepted their invitations frequently. I understood from various quarters, and inferred from what I saw, that he stood very particularly well with the Emperor, his family, and principal ministers. His personal habits were very peculiar. His neatness, and attention to the fashionable costume of the day, were carried to an extreme, which exposed him while at home to the charge of foppery and affectation. But it should be remembered how large a portion of his life he had spent abroad, and in the highest circles of European society. Though he undoubtedly piqued himself upon being a finished and elegant gentleman, yet his manners and habits of dress were, as it always seemed to me, acquired in Europe; and so far from being remarkable there, they were in exact accordance with the common and established usages of men of his rank and station. All who have been at any of the European courts know that their statesmen and ministers consider it a necessary part of their character to pay great attention to the elegancies and refinements of life, and after a day passed in the laborious discharge of their duties, will spend their evenings in society, and contribute quite their share of pleasant trifling. It is their *manière d'être*.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

'During the summer that I passed with Mr Pinkney, his personal habits were very regular He breakfasted late, and heartily. Then he retired to his study, and we saw him no more until dinner at six o'clock. The evening he passed with his family, or in visiting. He took very little exercise, eat and drank freely, and I thought suffered occasionally from the usual effects of a plethoric habit, with much indulgence as to food, and no attention to exercise. Undoubtedly his extreme attention to personal cleanliness contributed much to preserve his health. His family saw little company at home or abroad; he appeared to be extremely fond of them, and satisfied with passing his evenings in their society.' pp. 157,—158.

It might be inferred from his fondness for history, that he was a curious traveller, especially in the classical region of Italy. He speaks, in a conversation quoted by Mr Wheaton, of his desire 'to visit that classic land, and of the feelings with which he should set foot on its shores.' His enthusiasm, however, was very moderate. He was not an inquisitive traveller; he staid but eight days in Rome, and exhibited, we are told, nothing more than a decorous curiosity. He had an interview with the Pope, and was treated by him with great distinction. He was not much addicted to discourse on the character of the countries he passed through, or make comparisons between them, thinking, perhaps, as those who see the most are often apt to think, that their essential differences are small. Of company he saw much more, both in England and Russia, than in his own country, perhaps from the nature of his station at their courts, and the weight of his avocations at home; but more probably from a preference of foreign society, acquired by long residence in it. He has sketched some of the members of the ruling family of Russia, in the following letter to his daughter, Mrs Williams.

'The Empress Mother is still a charming woman, and when young must have been extremely handsome. She may be said *to do the honors* of this splendid court, and it is fit that she should. Her manners are infinitely pleasing, at the same time that they are lofty; and she is a perfect mistress of the arts of conversation. She is, moreover, exemplary in all the relations of life, and is beloved for her goodness by all classes.

'Of the reigning Empress it is impossible to speak in adequate terms of praise. It is necessary to see her to be able to comprehend how wonderfully interesting she is. It is no exaggeration to say, that with a slight abatement for the effects of time and severe affliction (produced by the loss of her children), she

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

combines every charm that contributes to female loveliness, with all the qualities that peculiarly become her exalted station. Her figure, although thin, is exquisitely fine. Her countenance is a subduing picture of feeling and intelligence. Her voice is of that soft and happy tone that goes directly to the heart, and awakens every sentiment which a virtuous woman can be ambitious to excite. Her manner cannot be described or imagined. It is graceful, unaffectedly gentle, winning, and at the same time truly dignified. Her conversation is suited to this noble exterior. Adapted with nice discrimination to those to whom it is addressed, unostentatious and easy, sensible and kind, it captivates invariably the wise and good, and (what is yet more difficult) satisfies the frivolous without the slightest approach to frivolity. If universal report may be credited, there is no virtue for which this incomparable woman is not distinguished; and I have reason to be confident from all that I have observed and heard, that her understanding (naturally of the highest order) has been embellished and informed to an uncommon degree by judicious, and regular, and various study. It is not, therefore, surprising that she is alike adored by the inhabitant of the palace and the cottage, and that every Russian looks up to her as to a superior being. She is, indeed, a superior being, and would be adored, although she were not surrounded by imperial pomp and power.' pp. 155, 156.

The ensuing sketch of Mr Pinkney's person is, with some other particulars, from the hand of a gentleman, who, during a few years preceding his death, was on a footing of intimacy with him.

'In frame Mr Pinkney was robust, square shouldered, and firm set. His complexion was clear and florid, disclosing the smaller veins under the skin. His face full, his eye of a dead blue, variable in its expression, and quickly lighted up by excitement. His nose was small, turning a little upward; the eyebrow thinly clothed, and forming a marked protuberance, which was very conspicuous in his profile. His forehead was low and retreating; his lips thin, the corners of his mouth pointing downward a very little; his chin small. His head was oval, thinly covered with short brown hair of a silky texture; it was flattened on each side, and showed his ears in high relief; in that, and in some other respects, however different the *tout ensemble*, closely resembling the head of La Fayette. Although the habitual expression of his face was mirthful, it was deeply furrowed with the lines of thought. Under his eyes hung heavy circles, and his cheeks were defined by strong boundaries passing from

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

each nostril. These two were the predominant characteristics of his countenance.

'His carriage was more than erect; it might be called perpendicular. His action and gesture, emphatic at all times, seemed to bear defiance as if by habit, and to denote a temperament almost incapable of fatigue. He was always on his feet, even in his study, and his walk was firm and elastic. Sickness scarcely deprived him of this quality. His ardor was irrepressible, and nature seemed to have given him personal vigor, correspondent to the aspirations of his mind. He took the utmost pains with his dress, and encouraged the same particularity in this respect, among his young friends. His toilet was seldom made less than twice in the day; but he scarcely ever changed his dress to meet the fashions; having adopted that style, I suppose, which he thought best adapted to show off his person. As he carried his head high, his cravat was adjusted to that position. He constantly wore a white vest, buttoned up to the chin with gilt buttons; a blue frock and black stock in the morning, *à la militaire*, a style that he seemed to be fond of; but he appeared generally in the evening nearly in full dress, his garments adjusted almost to constraint, though they subjected him, apparently, to no inconvenience. In short, his exterior was that of a man of leisure and fashion, and seemed to show the training of high and formal company. It was after the English school, with its regulated movement, disciplined patience, and, to my taste, ungraceful constriction.'

Of his genius, whether in diplomacy or in the forum, the estimate has, we believe, been very correctly made by the public. Such as are curious to see to what extent of learning, such power of application, allied with such force of mind, may carry a man in a particular science, will regret, perhaps, that he ever wandered beyond the rugged tracts of his profession; while others may lament, that so happy a genius should have been expended on a kind of learning wholly technical, and which, being therefore remote from vulgar apprehension, neither allows the uninitiated to estimate the acumen it requires, nor enriches the mind proportionably to the toil of acquisition. We shall not inquire, whether the laborers in the mine of the law, are rewarded for their expense of toil in skill, nor whether we are to assign it a first rank among sciences which humanize the mind. Be this as it may, Mr Pinkney seemed born for his profession; and he would probably have made the 'pyramid of his re-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

nown' yet broader and higher, had he never been tempted aside from his task by less congenial pursuits. In diplomatic ability, so far as it is constituted by a large acquaintance with public law, a perfect understanding of the questions arising on it, and skill to disentangle their complexities, he did not fall short of any of the great names opposed to him. That he failed in address, is likely enough from the general turn of his character, especially a tincture of personal vanity, which, while it gave to more adroit negotiators an assailable point, would not permit him to suspect that he could be deceived or circumvented. Thence, even a cunning Neapolitan diplomatist might be an overmatch for him. No diplomatic position could be imagined, however, more embarrassing and vexatious, than the precise one he was placed in at St James's. Two colossal belligerents mutually encroaching on the rights of a neutral, whose true place in the political scale was not yet understood, its own government hardly prepared for the last resort, and the nation itself distracted by two fierce parties; these were circumstances in which the most consummate adroitness might have failed to unite all suffrages in its favor. As a statesman his views were sound; but his most successful efforts were, naturally, on points connected with his professional studies.

'But,' as his biographer remarks, 'in tracing the principal outlines of his public character, his professional talents and attainments must necessarily occupy the most prominent place. To extraordinary natural endowments, Mr Pinkney added deep and various knowledge in his profession. A long course of study and practice had familiarized his mind with the science of jurisprudence. His intellectual powers were most conspicuous in the investigations connected with that science. He had felt himself originally attracted to it by invincible inclination; it was his principal pursuit in life; and he never entirely lost sight of it in his occasional deviations into other pursuits and employments. The lures of political ambition and the blandishments of polished society, or perhaps a vague desire of universal acomplishment and general applause, might sometimes tempt him to stray for a season from the path which the original bent of his genius had assigned him. But he always returned with fresh ardor and new delight to his appropriate vocation. He was devoted to the law with a true enthusiasm; and his other studies and pursuits, so far as they had a serious object, were valued chiefly as they might minister to this idol of his affections.

'It was in his profession that he found himself at home; in this

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

consisted his pride and his pleasure; for as he said, "the bar is not the place to acquire or preserve a false and fraudulent reputation for talents." And on that theatre he felt conscious of possessing those powers which would command success.'

'This entire devotion to his professional pursuits was continued with unremitting perseverance to the end of his career. If the celebrated Denys Talon could say of the still more celebrated D'Anguesseau, on hearing his first speech at the bar, "*that he would willingly* END *as that young man* COMMENCED," every youthful aspirant to forensic fame among us might wish to begin his professional exertions with the same love of labor, and the same ardent desire of distinction which marked the efforts of William Pinkney throughout his life.'

'The editor well remembers in the last, and one of his most able pleadings in the Supreme Court, remonstrating with him upon the necessity of his refraining from such laborious exertions in the actual state of his health, and with what vehemence he replied, *that he did not desire to live a moment after the standing he had acquired at the bar was lost, or even brought into doubt or question.*

'What might not be expected from professional emulation directed by such an ardent spirit and such singleness of purpose even if sustained by far inferior abilities! But no abilities, however splendid, can command success at the bar without intense labor and persevering application. It was this which secured to Mr Pinkney the most extensive and lucrative practice ever acquired by any American lawyer, and which raised him to such an enviable height of professional eminence. For many years he was the acknowledged leader of the bar in his native State; and during the last ten years of his life, the principal period of his attendance in the Supreme Court of the nation, he enjoyed the reputation of having been rarely equalled and perhaps never excelled in the power of reasoning upon legal subjects. This was the faculty which most remarkably distinguished him. His mind was acute and subtle, and at the same time comprehensive in its grasp, rapid and clear in its conceptions, and singularly felicitous in the exposition of the truths it was employed in investigating.'

'Of the extent and solidity of his legal attainments, it would be difficult to speak in adequate terms, without the appearance of exaggeration. He was profoundly versed in the ancient learning of the common law; its technical peculiarities and feudal origin. Its subtle distinctions and artificial logic were familiar to his early studies, and enabled him to expound with admirable force and perspicuity the rules of real property. He was familiar with every branch of commercial law; and superadded, at a later period of

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

his life, to his other legal attainments, an extensive acquaintance with the principles of international law, and the practice of the Prize Courts. In his legal studies he preferred the original text writers and reporters, (*è fontibus hauriri,*) to all those abridgments, digests, and elementary treatises, which lend so many convenient helps and facilities to the modern lawyer, but which he considered as adapted to form sciolists, and to encourage indolence and superficial habits of investigation. His favorite law book was the Coke Littleton, which he had read many times. Its principal texts he had treasured up in his memory, and his arguments at the bar abounded with perpetual recurrences to the principles and analogies drawn from this rich mine of common law learning.' pp. 176, 183.

He was, indeed, a wonderful legal logician. As an orator it is a more delicate task to estimate his pretensions. On this point he was eminently ambitious; the more so, perhaps, as he might consider it less certain. In the parliament and courts of Great Britain, the last then adorned by Sir William Scott and Lord Erskine, he found a style of oratory more classical and embellished than was usual at the bar of America; and, if we may trust tradition, his study of that model impaired both the fire and the ease of his natural rhetoric. Mr Wheaton tells us, that he always continued to declaim in private, and that it was his habit to premeditate, not only the general order of his speeches, and the topics of illustration, but the rhetorical embellishments; which last he sometimes wrote out beforehand. We have been informed by one well acquainted with his habits, that he seldom or never wrote any part of his speeches. But the discrepancy may be reconciled by remembering, that the premeditated compositions of so trained a mind would be little the less perfect, in not being committed to paper. But, though his law papers might have been drawn up 'with much care,' and might have 'exhausted the subjects committed to his consideration,' it does not appear that they, or any of his written productions, cost him much effort. On the contrary he composed with great rapidity, writing his letters, diplomatic papers and opinions extremely fast, and with so heavy a hand as to cut constantly through the paper.

It was only after his return from his second mission to England, that we had the opportunity of witnessing ourselves any of his forensic displays. His manner, at that time, was certainly very peculiar; but, to our apprehension, it seemed not so much tinged with foreign imitations, as by his own peculiarities of mind

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

and taste. It was apparently studied to the minutest action; and we know that he practised much before the mirror. The defects of his manner may be imputed, therefore, to a vicious taste; for no man seemed to enjoy more self-possession, and few, a greater facility of reaching what he intended. At the beginning, he spoke in low and indistinct murmurs, as if he were conjuring up the spirit of his elocution by muttered incantations. During this period his action was constrained, and there was a show of timidity, which notwithstanding his usual confidence, was sometimes unaffected. In some of his latest efforts at the bar, where the occasion had drawn public expectation towards him, his lips have been seen to part with their color, his cheeks to turn pale, and his knees to shake. He has often said, that he never addressed an audience without some painful and embarrassing emotions in the beginning. As he advanced, these boyish tremors disappeared; he became bold, erect, and dictatorial; his voice swelled from its low notes, which were extremely musical, always parting with its charm as it rose; though his high notes were rather inarticulate and imperfect than harsh. He spoke with great vehemence, rushing from thought to thought with a sort of ferocity; his eye fiery, his nostrils distended, and his lips covered with froth, which he would wipe away. His gesture was quite as peculiar. His right arm was not *brandished* in the usual manner, but brought in frequent sweeps along his side; his right foot advanced, and his body alternately thrown back, as if about to spring, and heaved forward again, as if in act to strike down his adversary; big drops of sweat all the while coursing along their channels from his forehead. This 'heat and tempest of his passion,' he would sustain through periods, that might have mastered the sturdiest frames. The impression, which this violence made on his auditory, was of course, not always advantageous to the orator. It was too much the *habit* of his manner, to gain the credit of being excited by his subject, and threw over his best efforts a frigidness, which was not diminished by the circumstance, that he never seemed so lost in the current of his thought, as to forget altogether the eagerness of display. He never pressed so earnestly to his goal, as not to be turned aside by the golden glitter of an ornament. He became sensible to the vices of his elocution at a later day, and in some of his speeches avoided those of his manner almost entirely. His success in this reform, at an age when most men find their habits too rigid for change, proves how much he could fashion himself to his own taste.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

With all these faults of manner, it were rash and unjust to deny, that Mr Pinkney was an orator. Neither the wit, nor the thought, nor the harmony of Pope, has, in the opinion of some critics, enrolled him among poets, because he wanted the invention and the passion of his art. In the same qualified sense we might, perhaps, deny to this great champion of the bar the prize of oratory, which he so earnestly contended for, and to which he brought so many important pretensions, extent of learning, compass of thought, a forcible logic, felicity of illustration, and a correct and polished diction. To some, who remember the vehemence of manner which we have described, and the ambitiousness of his illustration, it may seem a strange heresy to deny him the praise of true fervor and rich invention; yet, as his warmth appeared to us to be that of the rhetorician, so his figures seemed cold, and rather embroidered on the web of his discourse, than woven into it. Nor do we impute this, we acknowledge, to the affectation of a model, but to an original deficiency of some of the qualities neccessary to eloquence, and, among the rest, that undefinable power of enchaining the sympathy of the hearers. His ambition of display sometimes weakened the force of his argument, engaged him in the pursuit of too remote analogies, and retarded his approach to the point, at which he aimed. Even his diction, admirable as it was, cannot be entirely commended; wearing often the air of too much elaboration, and being sometimes disfigured by affectations; so that this vehicle of his thought did not always move easily along, from the number and quaintness of its ornaments. His *hits*, if we may be allowed the word, were sometimes felicitous and witty, but they often ended in a cold conceit, and were not always edged with courtesy. Yet no man could hear him for an hour, without owning, that he was a noble genius and an elegant scholar; and the instances were very rare, in which any person, who had listened to him once, however much he might be dissatified with his manner and peculiarities, would not return with renewed delight to witness his successive efforts. To the time of his last public appearance in Washington, the court room was always thronged with the wise, the learned, the fashionable, when it was known that he was to speak; and he uniformly riveted the attention of his auditors, through the technical details of his longest and dryest arguments. The combined causes of this charm we shall not attempt to analyze; they may all be ultimately traced to the workings of an intellect, powerful in its original gifts, adorn-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ed by culture, and enriched with acquisitions gained by a life of studious toil and active experiment.

We insert the following passages from a pamphlet, published by him under the signature of *Publius*, after the commencement of the late war, and in defence of its policy, as among the best specimens of the style of his written compositions.

'"Nothing is more to be esteemed than peace," (I quote the wisdom of Polybius,) "*when it leaves us in possession of our honor and rights;* but when it is joined with loss of freedom, or with infamy, nothing can be more detestable and fatal." I speak with just confidence, when I say that no federalist can be found who desires with more sincerity the return of peace than the republican government, by which the war was declared. But it desires such a peace as the companion and instructer of Scipio has praised; a peace consistent with our rights and honor, and not the deadly tranquillity which may be purchased by disgrace, or taken in barter for the dearest and most essential claims of our trade and sovereignty. I appeal to you boldly; are you prepared to purchase a mere cessation of arms by unqualified submission to the pretensions of England? Are you prepared to sanction them by treaty and to entail them upon your posterity, with the inglorious and timid hope of escaping the wrath of those whom your fathers discomfited and vanquished? Are you prepared for the sake of a present profit, which the circumstances of Europe must render paltry and precarious, to cripple the strong wing of American commerce for years to come, to take from our flag its national effect and character, and to subject our vessels on the high seas, and the brave men who navigate them, to the municipal jurisdiction of Great Britain? I know very well that there are some amongst us (I hope they are but few), who are prepared for all this and more; who pule over every scratch occasioned by the war, as if it were an overwhelming calamity, and are only sorry that it is not worse; who would skulk out of a contest for the best interests of their country to save a shilling or gain a cent; who, having inherited the wealth of their ancestors without their spirit, would receive laws from London with as much facility as woollens from Yorkshire, or hardware from Sheffield. But I write to the great body of the people, who are sound and virtuous, and worthy of the legacy which the heroes of the revolution have bequeathed them. For *them*, I undertake to answer, that the only peace which they can be made to endure, is that which may twine itself round the honor of the people, and with its healthy and abundant foliage give shade and shelter to the prosperity of the empire.'

'As the war was forced upon us by a long series of unexampled

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

aggressions, it would be absolute madness to doubt, that peace will receive a cordial welcome, if she returns without ignominy in her train, and with security in her hand. The destinies of America are commercial, and her true policy is peace; but the *substance* of peace had, long before we were roused to a tardy resistance, been denied to us by the ministry of England; and the *shadow*, which had been left to mock our hopes and to delude our imaginations, resembled too much the frowning spectre of war to deceive any body. Every sea had witnessed, and continued to witness, the systematic persecution of our trade and the unrelenting oppression of our people. The ocean had ceased to be the safe highway of the neutral world; and our citizens traversed it with all the fears of a benighted traveller, who trembles along a road beset with banditti, or infested by the beasts of the forest. The government, thus urged and goaded, drew the sword with a visible reluctance; and, true to the pacific policy which kept it so long in the scabbard, it will sheathe it again, when Great Britian shall consult her own interest, by consenting to forbear in future the wrongs of the past.

'The disposition of the government upon that point has been decidedly pronounced by facts which need no commentary. From the moment when war was declared, peace has been sought by it with a steady and unwearied assiduity, at the same time, that every practicable preparation has been made, and every nerve exerted to prosecute the war with vigor, if the enemy should persist in his injustice. The law respecting seamen, the Russian mission, the instructions sent to our Chargé d'Affaires in London, the prompt and explicit disavowal of every unreasonable pretension falsely ascribed to us, and the solemn declarations of the government in the face of the world, that it wishes for nothing more than a fair and honorable accommodation, would be conclusive proofs of this, if any proofs were necessary. But it does not require to be proved, because it is self evident. What interest, in the name of common sense, can the government have (distinctly from that of the whole nation) in a war with Great Britain? It is obvious to the meanest capacity, that such a war must be accompanied by privations, of which no government would hazard the consequences, but upon the suggestions of an heroic patriotism. The President and his supporters have never been ignorant that those who suffer by a war, however unavoidable, are apt rather to murmur against the government than against the enemy, and that while it presses upon us, we sometimes forget the compulsion under which it was commenced, and regret that it was not avoided with a provident foresight of its evils.

'It will, therefore, be no easy matter to persuade you that this

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

war was *courted* by an administration who depend upon the people for their power, and are proud of that dependence; or that it will be carried on with a childish obstinacy, when it can be terminated with honor and with safety. You have, on the contrary, a thousand pledges that the government was averse to war, and will give you peace the instant peace is in its power. You know, moreover, that the enemy will not grant it as a boon, and that it must be wrung from his necessities. It comes to this, then; whom will you select as your champions to extort it from him? upon whom will you cast the charge of achieving it against him in the lists?'

Mr Wheaton's work contains other extracts from his correspondence, and some of his opinions and speeches, which, if they fail to interest the general reader, will give the work a place in the libraries of lawyers and political inquirers.

ART. VI.—*The Diplomacy of the United States; being an Account of the Foreign Relations of the Country, from the First Treaty with France, in* 1778, *to the Treaty of Ghent, in* 1814, *with Great Britain.* 8vo. pp. 379. Boston. Wells & Lilly. 1826.

THE establishment of a new empire in the western hemisphere, by the separation of the North American colonies from Great Britain, has been justly considered as constituting a new era in the political world. The events, whether political or military, which produced that extraordinary revolution, as well as those, which led to the formation of the institutions peculiar to this new republic, together with the influence, which this revolution and these institutions have had on the civilized world, are daily becoming more and more interesting objects of inquiry. No contribution, therefore, to the political or military history of this country can fail of a favorable reception from the American public. The political transactions of the United States, especially those concerning their connexions with foreign nations are much less known than those of a military character. Movements in the field, as well as their causes, are more easily ascertained and oftener become subjects of historical research, than those in the cabinet. In the latter, greater secrecy is often required,

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

and this secrecy sometimes continues, long after the occasion for it has ceased.

Under the old system of government, Congress held their deliberations in secret, and very little of their foreign correspondence has yet been made public. No inconsiderable part of the foreign correspondence, under the new form of government, is now before the public; while the earlier correspondence between the United States and foreign nations still remains in the archives of the Secretary of State. In 1818, the national legislature ordered the journal of the general convention, together with the secret journal and foreign correspondence of Congress, from their first meeting, to the peace of 1783, to be published, under the direction of the President of the United States, with the exception of such parts of the foreign correspondence, as he might deem it improper to publish. By a second order, papers of a similar description, from 1783, to the commencement of the new government, were included. Under these orders, the journal of the convention, and the secret journals of Congress, have been published. The publication of the foreign correspondence has hitherto been delayed. The delicacy, as well as labor, of making a selection from such a voluminous mass of papers, may, perhaps, have been one of the causes of this delay. The publication of these important state papers, in connexion with the secret journals, would add greatly to the general stock of materials for American history, and would, no doubt, tend to increase the reputation of those American statesmen, who, during that period, were principally employed in foreign transactions. Many of them would probably be found of the same high character, with those state papers published by Congress, at the commencement of the Revolution, which Lord Chatham declared to equal any productions of the free states of antiquity.

'The Diplomacy of the United States,' a work which has been presented to the public during the present year, is, we believe, the first publication of the kind relating to America. It is confined to the diplomatic part of American history; and the author has judiciously availed himself of the various state papers which have been published, not only in this country, but in Europe. From these and other sources, he has drawn up a valuable summary of this important and interesting part of the history of the United States. The account of the negotiations of this country with each of the European nations is given by

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

itself, in a distinct chapter. The author commences the second chapter of his work with the following remarks.

'The means of intercourse, possessed by the confederation with foreign nations, were exceedingly limited; of the States in Europe, most able to assist them, they had known but little except as enemies. They had, in various wars, taken an active part with the mother country against France, and had powerfully, and very cheerfully, contributed to the conquest of the French possessions in North America. Indeed, one of the principal motives of the Convention at Albany, held in 1754, and consisting of commissioners from eight of the colonies, was to agree on a scheme of mutual protection against the encroachments of the French and Indians, at that time always allies. Their trade had also been constantly subject to the severities and restrictions of the colonial system; and at the period of the Revolution was confined to Great Britain, the West Indies, Africa, and Europe, south of Cape Finisterre. It is not, therefore, to be expected that they could look abroad with much confidence or hope of relief. The principal European states possessed colonies. America labored, on that account, under the peculiar disadvantage of seeking aid and encouragement from governments, whose policy it would always be, to resist the principles the confederation asserted. Revolutions were at that time not so common as they have since become. The act of the Americans was, with the exception of two very slight affairs of the Pretender in Great Britain, the only instance of rebellion, that had occurred among civilized nations in that century. The governments of Europe appeared, moreover, at this crisis, to be strong and prosperous. Monarchy was never, in appearance, more firmly established, or colonies of all descriptions, in more complete subjection.

'It is not likely that the American colonies, in the outset, expected assistance from abroad. The Revolutionary war, though events had been setting with a silent, but most unerring course, to that extremity since '66, was little anticipated in '74, the year of the first meeting of the Delegates in Philadelphia. This war finally broke out in a very unexpected manner, and spread with a rapidity equally astonishing. It is the first illustration, we have in history, of the effects of strong excitement on a people well educated and perfectly free.' pp. 17, 18.

The colonists did not apply to foreign alliances to assist them, in their struggle against the unconstitutional and arbitrary claims of their parent country, until the last hope of reconciliation had vanished. When their second humble petition to the king had been rejected with contempt; when, by a solemn act of Parlia-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ment, they had been thrown out of the protection of the British government, when thousands of foreign mercenaries were engaged to force them to submission; then, and not till then, did they declare themselves independent, establish governments of their own, and seek foreign alliances.

They had, indeed, previously taken measures to sound some of the powers of Europe, on the subject of assistance, in case a separation from Great Britain should be ultimately found necessary. For this purpose a secret committee was appointed by Congress in November, 1775, consisting of Dr Franklin, Mr Harrison, Mr Johnson, Mr Dickinson, and Mr Jay. This committee were to correspond with their friends in Europe, and other parts of the world. They had their agents in Europe, among whom was Arthur Lee in London, and Mr Dumas in Holland. In March, 1776, this committee sent Silas Deane, a delegate in Congress from Connecticut, as a political and commercial agent to France, to solicit supplies of arms, ammunition, and clothing from the French court, or from whatever quarter they could be obtained. He was particularly instructed, to ascertain 'whether, if the colonies should be forced to form themselves into an independent state, France would probably acknowledge them as such, receive their ambassadors, enter into a treaty or alliance with them, for commerce, or defence, or both? If so, on what principal conditions?' The French government had anticipated that part of Mr Deane's mission relating to supplies, before his arrival in France. This is evident from a letter written by the French minister to the king, as early as May, 1776, which the author of the work now under notice has quoted at large. It shows the extreme caution and secrecy used by the French court, in furnishing the Americans with supplies, at that early period, and is here subjoined.

'Sir, I have the honor of laying at the feet of your Majesty the writing, authorizing me to furnish a million of livres for the service of the English colonies. I add, also, the plan of an answer I propose to make to the Sieur Beaumarchais. I solicit your approbation to the two propositions. The answer to Mr de Beaumarchais will not be written in my hand, nor even that of either the clerks or secretaries of my office. I shall employ for that purpose my son, whose handwriting cannot be known. He is only fifteen years old, but I can answer in the most positive manner for his discretion. As it is important that this operation should not be suspected, or at least imputed to the government, I entreat

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

your Majesty to allow me to direct the return of the Sieur Montaudoin to Paris. The apparent pretext for that proceeding will be, to obtain from him an account of his correspondence with the Americans, though, in reality, it will be for the purpose of employing him to transmit to them such funds as your Majesty chooses to appropriate to their benefit, directing him, at the same time, to take all necessary precaution, as if, indeed, the Sieur Montaudoin made the advance on their own account. On this head, I take the liberty of requesting the orders of Majesty. Having obtained them, I shall write to the Marquis de Grimaldi, inform him in detail of our proceedings, and request his co-operation, to the same extent.' pp. 19, 20.

This is one of those curious state papers, which the French revolution has brought to light; and to enable the reader to understand, why the answer to Beaumarchais was of so secret a nature, as to be entrusted in the handwriting of no one, but that of the son of the minister, it is necessary to state, that, previously to the date of this letter, Beaumarchais had been secretly sent to London, to inform Arthur Lee, that the French court had determined to assist the Americans, by sending them, as a present, the amount of two hundred thousand *louisdors*, in arms, ammunitions, and money; and to request Mr Lee to communicate this information to Congress, and say that the same would be transmitted through the French West India Islands, in the fictitious name of Hortales & Co. The answer here alluded to referred, no doubt, to this secret mission.

Beaumarchais soon after returned to Paris, and this million of livres was placed in his hands, for the benefit of the Americans. Soon after Mr Deane's arrival, he had several interviews with the French minister, or his secretary. The minister assured Mr Deane of his protection; and informed him that their ports should be open to the Americans, and that every facility would be given to the shipment of warlike stores. With respect to American independence, he told Mr Deane, it would be improper for him to say anything on that subject, until it had actually taken place. Soon after his first conference, Beaumarchais was introduced to Mr Deane, recommended by Vergennes, and offered to procure for him whatever he wanted. Some doubts being suggested to Mr Deane, whether Beaumarchais, who was not a merchant or a man of business, would be able to fulfil his engagements, he had a second conference with Vergennes, who assured him, that he might rely on whatever Beaumarchais

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

should engage, in the commercial way of supplies. In consequence of this, an arrangement was made, by Mr Deane, with this secret agent of the French government, and military supplies and clothing were furnished, to the amount of about two hundred thousand *louisdors*, and were transmitted to America, in the name of a fictitious mercantile house, by the name of Hortales and Co. a name, which often appears, in the journals of the old Congress.

Most of the cannon and arms were, in fact, taken from the king's arsenals. This secret and mysterious mode of supply, as the author justly observes, gave rise to the claim of Beaumarchais, and rendered it very intricate.

Immediately after the declaration of independence, Congress prepared a plan of a commercial treaty, to be proposed to France and Spain; and in September, 1776, Dr Franklin, Mr Deane, and Mr Jefferson were appointed commissioners to France. Mr Jefferson having declined, Arthur Lee was chosen in his room. The manner in which the French court and nation received the American envoys, is thus described.

'Mr Lee and Mr Deane were in Europe at the time of their appointment. In December '76, Dr Franklin, the third commissioner, arrived in France. He was received with uncommon attention; known already as a philosopher, the cause he represented was undoubtedly popular in that country. Indeed, the subject of liberty itself was, already, popular. It might have been only a fashion, as so many other things have been in France; it might have arisen from the metaphysical, or rather philosophical discussions, in which the French were then so much engaged, without at all apprehending the practical effects of them. Or, perhaps, we may, with most truth, call the cause of the colonies popular, because it was one that was likely to do vast mischief to England. The novelty of the undertaking itself, produced an enthusiasm in France; a war was commenced on a new continent; the scene of action and of interest was transferred from the old world. This had, already, happened in the former French wars, when Quebec and their other possessions fell. But, then, the European had only left his customary battle grounds to meet on a new continent with the same armies, the same animosity, and the same ambition. Europe was a party to those wars. To this she was a spectator. America was viewed with that deep interest and sympathy with which the weak are regarded in all contests; and those, who were not inspired with the holy spirit of emanci-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

pation, doubtless wished well to a cause, that was fought at such fearful odds.

'But the government manifested an evident reluctance to form an open alliance at this time. It naturally and prudently sought for delay. The commissioners were not publicly received; for the fate and condition of the Americans were in an unconfirmed state; and it might well be doubted, whether they could long resist the mother country, of whose power France, herself, had very recently had melancholy experience. But assistance continued to be secretly furnished; privateers were allowed to equip and bring their prizes into French ports, commissions were issued by the American envoys; and the cause of the Revolution still continued exceedingly popular with the people.' pp. 22, 23.

The negotiations of the United States with France and Spain, during the revolutionary struggle, and with Great Britain, in connexion with those powers, on the terms of peace and independence, have very properly claimed the greatest share of the author's attention; and this part of the work will be read with peculiar interest. In maintaining the cause of independence, American statesmen, during this period, had to encounter difficulties abroad, as well as at home; and no one can contemplate the firmness, with which these difficulties were met and overcome by them, or their perseverance, in every adverse fortune, without entertaining a greater veneration for their character.

Soon after the arrival of the American envoys at Paris, a paper, signed by the king, was read to them by the secretary of Vergennes. In this paper, his Most Christian Majesty declared, among other things, that, being determined to take no advantage of the situation, in which the United States were then placed; he thought that it was not then a proper time to form a lasting union, which, however, he very much wished; that they should be at liberty to make their purchases, in private, securing to him an observance of treaties, which he was determined not to be the first to break; and that to prove his good wishes, he had ordered two millions of livres to be paid them quarterly, which should be augmented, as the state of his finances would permit. The most profound secrecy, with respect to this matter, was enjoined on the commissioners.

France evidently waited for events which should decide, beyond all doubt, not only the disposition, but the ability of the Americans to support their independence; and to be perfectly satisfied, that her aid, when openly afforded, would prevent the

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

possibility of their reconciliation with Great Britain. This policy was pursued by the French court, notwithstanding the advantageous offers made by the American Congress, until the capture of General Burgoyne and his army, in October, 1777. The disasters of the campaign of 1776 induced Congress to turn their attention more seriously to the subject of obtaining foreign aid. In December of this year, they determined to send commissioners to the courts of Vienna, Spain, and Prussia, and to the Duke of Tuscany. These commissioners were particularly instructed to assure the courts, to which they were sent, that, notwithstanding the insidious suggestions of the British court, the people of the United States were not disposed to submit to the sovereignty of the British crown; and of their determination, at all events, to maintain their independence. To induce France in particular to take an open part in the war, Congress proposed, that all the trade between the United States and the West Indies should be confined to French and American vessels, and to divide the cod fishery with France, in case Great Britain, by their joint efforts, should be excluded from any share in it. If these offers should be insufficient to produce a declaration of war, on the part of France, the commissioners were directed to yield to the king of France all the British West India islands, that might be reduced by his arms; and to stipulate, that the United States would furnish two millions of dollars in provisions, and six frigates, in the expeditions for their reduction. To Spain they offered their assistance, in obtaining possession of the town and harbor of Pensacola, on condition that the citizens of the United States should have the free navigation of the Mississippi, and the use of the harbor of Pensacola.

These new offers, however, produced no change in the policy of the two courts. The news of the surrender of Burgoyne and his army, which reached Europe about the first of December, produced a new state of things, both in Great Britain and France. The British Parliament was then in session; but the minister was not prepared to meet so unexpected and important an event, and immediately proposed an adjournment to the twentieth of January; which took place on the eleventh of December. In the debates on this motion, in which the ministry were attacked with great severity, Lord North declared, that one object of the adjournment was, to prepare a plan of reconciliation with the Colonies; and he gave notice, that after the recess, he should submit to the consideration of the House cer-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

tain concessions, which might serve as the basis of a treaty, and he trusted, that their endeavors would prove effectual in bringing about a permanent peace, and a lasting union between the two countries. The proceedings of parliament were soon known in France, and on the sixteenth the French king declared to the American envoys his determination to accede to their propositions. Before the completion of a treaty, Spain was to be consulted by the French court. On this subject, the king himself addressed a letter to his Catholic majesty, bearing date the eighth of January, 1778. This letter the author has very properly inserted. It distinctly discloses the policy of the two courts, as well as the real motives, which ultimately induced the king of France openly to join the Americans. pp. 297, 298.

'"England, our common and inveterate enemy, has been engaged for three years in a war with her colonies. We have agreed not to take a part in it, and, considering both parties as English, we have made the commerce of our state free to whoever should find his advantage in it. In this way America has provided herself with those arms and munitions, of which she was in want. I do not speak of the aid we have given that country in money and other articles, the whole having been done in the ordinary course of commerce. England has shown some vexation at this circumstance, and we are not ignorant that she will sooner or later revenge herself. This was the situation of the business the last November. The destruction of Burgoyne and the embarrassments of Howe have changed the face of things. America is triumphant; England is cast down. But her vast marine is still entire, and having abandoned the idea of conquering the colonies, she has resolved to form an alliance with them. All parties in England are agreed in this particular. Lord North has himself announced a plan of pacification. It does not much signify to us, whether he or any other minister is in place; actuated by different motives, they will still unite against us. *It is very important to prevent the reunion of the colonies with the mother country.*"'

The author has only given what he considers the substance of the conclusion of this letter. The original is more explicit as to the motives of the king, in accepting the proposals of the Americans, and is as follows.

'This being understood, and our causes of complaint against England notorious, I have thought, after taking the advice of my council, and particularly of M. d'Ossuna, and having consulted upon the propositions, which the insurgents make, that it was just

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

and necessary to treat with them, *to prevent their reunion with the mother country;* (pour empêcher leur réunion à la métropole).'

Spain, however, refused to join France in treating with the Americans. Although desirous of reducing the power of Great Britain, by the separation of her North American colonies, she was unwilling to become a party in a war for this object, without some security for the future safety of her own possessions, adjoining the newly formed American States. France, therefore, concluded a treaty of commerce, and an eventual treaty of alliance, with the United States, without the concurrence of Spain. By a secret article, however, his Catholic Majesty had a right to accede to both treaties whenever he thought proper. The connexion formed between France and America being officially announced to the British government, war was the immediate consequence.

Although Spain refused to accede to the treaties, she offered her mediation between France and Great Britain. This was readily accepted by his Most Christian Majesty, and was listened to, on the part of his Britannic Majesty, and a correspondence on the subject between the British and Spanish courts took place for several months; and was finally ended in June 1779, when Spain joined France in the contest. This was done in consequence of a convention between the two courts in April preceding, which was a secret compact, and, it is believed, has never yet been made public. It was, probably, a renewal of the old family compact, and no doubt contained a stipulation, on the part of France, to assist Spain in securing to her the exclusive navigation of the Mississippi, as well as her former possessions, east of that river. Should negotiations for peace be the consequence of the offered mediation, both France and Spain determined that the United States should be a party. To meet this event, the appointment of an American minister was deemed necessary. The instructions to the minister created much division in Congress. The members were divided on the subjects of the fisheries, the navigation of the Mississippi, and the Northwestern boundaries. They were, at first, not more unanimous in the selection of a minister. In two successive ballots the votes were equally divided between Mr Adams and Mr Jay. The subject being postponed, Mr Jay was afterward appointed minister to Spain, and Mr Adams to treat of peace.

Pending this mediation, Great Britain secretly attempted to effect a separate peace, with the United States, as well as with

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

France. For this purpose, Mr Hartley was sent to Paris to sound Dr Franklin, and Mr Forth to confer with Vergennes. The former, after a long correspondence, made several preliminary propositions to Dr Franklin; one of which was, that America 'should be released and unengaged from all treaties with foreign powers;' and he told Dr Franklin, that the convention formed between America and France 'was the great stumbling-block, in the way of reconciliation.' Mr Forth proposed to France, in case she would abandon America, that she might retain her conquests in the West Indies; and promised not only to relinquish the right of an English commissary at Dunkirk, but to allow her great advantages in the East Indies. The offers thus separately and secretly made, were rejected by Dr Franklin and Vergennes. The negotiations of Mr Jay with the court of Madrid, were attended with peculiar difficulties and embarrassments, and required all the patience and perseverance of that distinguished patriot and statesman. Aware of the wishes of Spain to regain the possessions she had lost in America during the last war, Congress instructed Mr Jay to guaranty the Floridas to his Catholic Majesty, in case he would accede to the treaties; and also to obtain loans and subsidies. Soon after his arrival at Madrid, Mr Jay was explicitly informed, that the king of Spain would not join in these treaties; and that he was much displeased with his Most Christian Majesty for concluding them without his concurrence. When the American minister pressed the Spanish court on this subject, and particularly with regard to the navigation of the Mississippi, he was told, that his Catholic Majesty had determined to exclude all foreigners from entering the Gulf of Mexico from the North, and that he would enter into no treaty with the United States, until some definitive arrangement should be made relative to the navigation of the Mississippi. The embarrassments of Mr Jay were greatly increased, and his situation rendered extremely delicate, by the refusal of the Spanish court to furnish him with any money, even to pay the bills, which Congress had drawn upon him, unless upon the condition of a relinquishment of the claim of the United States to the navigation of the Mississippi. This condition the American minister refused to comply with. In consequence of the success of the enemy, at the South in 1780, Congress were induced to recede from insisting on the free navigation of the Mississippi, and a free port below latitude 31°, in case Spain would secure to the United States the navigation of that

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

river, above that latitude. A proposition, agreeable to these instructions, was submitted to the Spanish court, but was rejected; and the negotiations remained in this state until June 1782, when they were transferred to Paris, and blended with the subjects of a general peace, between all the belligerents.

In 1780 the war began to affect most of the European powers. Towards the close of that year, the empress of Russia, and the emperor of Germany, offered their mediation for a general peace in Europe. This mediation was accepted at once by England, and eventually by France, Spain, and the United States. A general congress was proposed to settle the terms.

Before commencing negotiations, however, France and Spain insisted upon an explicit answer from the court of London to the question, whether an American plenipotentiary would be admitted at this congress. The king of Great Britain, in June 1781, in his answer, declared, that he would not, in any manner whatever, admit the interference of any foreign power, between him and his rebel subjects; and, therefore, would not agree to the admission of any person, at the proposed congress, on their part; that he would not consent to any measure, which might limit or suspend the right which every sovereign had to employ the means in his power, to put an end to a rebellion in his dominions; and that the mediation of the imperial courts must be limited to peace between the belligerents in Europe, and not extend to a particular peace with the revolted Americans. This answer put an end to all further proceedings under this mediation. While it was pending, the instructions prepared for the American minister, under the Spanish mediation, were revised by Congress; and at the instance of the French minister, a clause was inserted, declaring, that the American negotiators 'were ultimately to be governed by the advice and opinion of the king of France or his minister.' All the states did not assent to this extraordinary and humiliating clause. The states of Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and Delaware gave their votes against it, and Pennsylvania was divided.

At the same time, Dr Franklin, Mr Jay, Mr Laurens, and Mr Jefferson were joined with Mr Adams, in the commission. The pride of Great Britain would not yet permit her to treat with her rebel subjects, as she still called them, under the mediation or interference of any foreign power.

The arms of the allies, however, were able to effect in America, what neither the imperial courts, nor the house of Bourbon,

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

could accomplish in Europe. The capture of Lord Cornwallis and his army, in October of the same year, convinced the British nation, that America could not be subdued by force, and led to a change of administration, and pacific overtures, on the part of the court of London.

The author has presented a view of the circumstances, which led to these overtures, as well as the negotiations which followed; and has, also, given the reasons why the American ministers concluded a treaty, without even consulting the French court, together with a very able and satisfactory vindication of their conduct, in thus departing from their instructions. We cannot do better, than to give this vindication in the words of the author.

'This direct deviation from positive instructions, this apparent ingratitude and perfidy to a faithful and valuable ally, is susceptible of a full and ready explanation. Early in '82, it was foreseen that England was not the only country, that would present obstacles to a peace, safe and satisfactory to the United States. America, now independent, found herself compelled to resist Spain, claiming territory on the one hand, and France seeking an exclusive possession of the fisheries on the other. She had succeeded to the rights, the advantageous position, and a portion of the commerce of the mother country in the new world; and undoubtedly France and Spain were well aware, that the United States would become dangerous neighbors on the land, and troublesome competitors on the ocean. The American colonies had always been so, even while their trade was subject to the control and prohibition of Great Britain. But France and Spain did not anticipate, that America would either claim, or be able to maintain, all the former rights of the colonies. They entered into the negotiation of '82 with the intention and expectation of extorting from England, to the injury of the United States, some portion of her territory, and a part of one of her most valuable privileges. Both those countries had a heavy balance to settle with Great Britain in the new world; and they remembered, with bitterness and mortification, the provisions of the two treaties of Utrecht and Paris.'

'On the side of France, America had much to fear. She was disposed to curtail her fishing rights and privileges, to maintain Spain in her pretensions respecting boundaries, and to aid England in exacting a compensation for the loyalists. A letter written by M. de Marbois, secretary of the French legation, from Philadelphia, dated March 13th, '82, intercepted and decyphered at the time, if it did not give the first intimation of similar de-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

signs in the French court, strengthened, at least, the suspicions before entertained. M. de Marbois advised M. de Vergennes to cause to be intimated to the American ministers, "his surprise that the Newfoundland fisheries have been included in the additional instructions. That the United States set forth pretensions therein, *without paying regard to the king's* [French] *rights*, and without considering the impossibility they are under of making conquests, and of keeping what belongs to Great Britain. It will be better to have it declared at an early period to the Americans, that their pretensions to the fisheries of the great Bank are not founded, and that his Majesty does not mean to support them." These extracts, taken in connexion with the obvious policy of the French court, could leave few doubts concerning its designs.' pp. 182—185.

The boundaries, the fisheries, and the case of the loyalists, were subjects of the greatest difficulty, in the settlement of the terms of peace between Great Britain and her former colonies. On these important subjects, the American negotiators had not only to meet the British ministers, but to counteract the views and claims of France and Spain. Negotiations with Spain were resumed by Mr Jay in the summer of 1782, at Paris, with Count de Aranda. In their first conference, in the presence of Dr Franklin, the Spanish minister referred to the old topic of western limits, and asked, What are the boundaries of the United States? Mr Jay replied, that the Mississippi, from its source to latitude 31°, was their western boundary, and from latitude 31° east, by the line between Georgia and the Floridas. The Spanish minister protested against the right of the United States to extend to the Mississippi. He declared, that the western country had never belonged or claimed to belong to the ancient colonies; that previous to the war of 1755, it belonged to France, and after its cession to Great Britain, it remained a distinct part of her dominions, until, by the conquest of west Florida and certain posts on the Mississippi and Illinois, it became vested in Spain. He then drew a line, as a boundary, on Mitchell's map of North America, beginning at a lake near the confines of Georgia, and east of Flint river, to the confluence of the Kanaway with the Ohio, and thence round the western shores of lakes Erie and Huron, then round lake Michigan to Superior. This map he sent to Mr Jay, and it was, by him, soon after shown to Vergennes, in company with Dr Franklin. The latter pointed out to the French minister this line, as claim-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ed by Spain, declaring it to be an extravagant and improper one, and insisting on the right of the United States to extend to the Mississippi. Vergennes said very little in reply to these remarks; but Mr Rayneval, his principal secretary, who was present, denied the right of the United States to extend so far west. The Spanish minister afterwards requested the American commissioners to designate some line, east of the Mississippi, to which they would assent. This, however, they refused, declaring, that they could never cede to Spain any part of the country east of that river. Mr Rayneval soon after requested an interview with Mr Jay, relative to limits with Spain. In this interview, he declared explicitly, that the United States had no claim to lands west of the Alleghany mountains, as settled by the British proclamation of October, 1763; that Spain had no claims beyond her late conquests, and could not, in strictness, go beyond the Natchez; but, 'as the future might bring forth new circumstances,' he proposed an eventual arrangement of limits between the United States and Spain. He suggested, therefore, that a line should commence at the western angle of the Gulf of Mexico, which formed the section between the Floridas, and run thence to Fort Toulouse, and thence by various rivers to the Cumberland, and down that river to the Ohio. The lands north of the Ohio, Mr Rayneval did not consider as belonging to Spain, or the United States, but that 'their fate must be regulated by the court of London.'

These ideas of Rayneval were, no doubt, those of the French court, and satisfied the American envoys, that the object of France was, by the eventual arrangement of limits proposed by Rayneval, to leave that vast tract of country north of the Ohio, a subject of negotiation between Great Britain and France alone. The intercepted letter of Marbois fully explained the views of the French court as to the fisheries, and in addition to this, Rayneval hinted to Dr Franklin and Mr Jay, that they should limit their claims to the coast fishery. To Mr Adams, who joined Dr Franklin and Mr Jay at Paris, about the twentieth of October, Vergennes expressed an opinion in favor of making some compensation to the loyalists.

Under these circumstances, the American negotiators came to the resolution of proceeding without consulting the court of France. The British minister at first insisted on the Ohio as the western limits, and that the United States should have but a small share in the fisheries. In the progress of the

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

negotiation, however, the subject of compensation to the loyalists created the greatest, and, at one time, an almost insuperable obstacle to a favorable result. As an *ultimatum*, the American commissioners finally proposed a stipulation, that Congress should recommend to the States a restoration of their property; but they candidly told the British minister, that, on account of the public feelings in America against this class of people, the recommendation would not probably be complied with by the States. This proposition was at last accepted, and the treaty signed on the thirtieth of November.

Although the French court could not openly complain of the advantages secured to their allies by this treaty, yet the answer of Vergennes to the note of Dr Franklin, enclosing a copy of it, evinced great dissatisfaction, and was expressed in severe and bitter language.

France and Spain had not at this time settled the terms of peace with Great Britain. Serious difficulties had arisen to prevent this; and among these, the claim of Spain for the surrender of Gibraltar was not the least. Having failed to obtain this fortress by force, Spain was determined to have it by negotiation; and her minister was instructed not to make peace without it. The aid of France was particularly solicited, and the Spanish court offered to France her part of St Domingo for Gibraltar. Mr Rayneval was intrusted with this important negotiation at London. A majority of the British cabinet, after much debate, agreed to yield up Gibraltar to Spain, on two conditions; first, The restitution of all the conquests made by Spain, namely, Minorca, West Florida, and the Bahama Islands; secondly, The cession of Porto Rico, or the restitution of Dominique, and the cession of Guadaloupe, by France. The French king was willing to restore Dominique, to cede Guadaloupe, and take the Spanish part of St Domingo; but the king of Spain hesitated about restoring West Florida. The king of England, however, at last put an end to this negotiation, by an absolute refusal to give up Gibraltar on any terms. With respect to territory, the *ultimatum* of the British cabinet was, the cession of both the Floridas, together with Minorca, and to receive back the Bahamas. This was finally accepted by the Spanish minister, though contrary to his instructions.

The advantages secured to the United States by the treaty of peace, were probably greater than those obtained by France or Spain. For these they were indebted to the abilities and

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

firmness of their ministers. It was foreseen by the American negotiators, that great difficulties would arise in the final adjustment of so many claims as must occur between Great Britain and the powers confederated against her, and that even among the confederates themselves there might be interfering interests. France, Spain, and Holland had important interests to settle, not only in America, but in Europe, the East and West Indies, and, indeed, in every part of the world; and each would naturally endeavor to obtain the most advantageous terms for itself.

Soon after the treaty of peace, new subjects of dispute arose between the United States and Great Britain, and also between them and Spain; the origin and nature of which are accurately stated in the work before us. While negotiations relative to these disputes were pending, a most extraordinary revolution took place in France; a revolution, which produced new and more important causes of complaint on the part of the United States against England and Spain; and involved this country in new and almost inextricable difficulties with France. The length to which this article has been extended, must prevent us from tracing the author through the intricate and protracted negotiations in which this country was involved with foreign nations, in consequence of this unexampled state of things in Europe. We must content ourselves with referring to the work itself. The author has stated them with accuracy and fidelity; and the remarks with which he has accompanied this statement, are made with impartiality and candor.

These negotiations embraced important questions of national law, relating to neutral rights, deeply affecting the commercial interests of the United States. During this mighty conflict, which continued without much interruption for a quarter of a century, the United States received great injuries from Great Britain and France. While the former was determined that the Americans should not directly or indirectly afford assistance to her ancient rival, the rulers of France, by whatever name they were called, were resolved, that the United States should join in the war against England. Each accused the American government of partiality to her rival; and it required all the wisdom and prudence of President Washington to prevent the United States from being at an early period involved in the war, which so long desolated Europe.

The first minister from the French republic, in 1793, was

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

instructed to form a family compact with the Americans, and to induce them to make common cause with France; and in 1807, the imperial Bonaparte, when solicited to relax his celebrated decrees, in favor of the United States, not only refused, but declared, that the Americans should be compelled to take the position and character either of allies or enemies. This declaration was made, when, in the height of his conquests, Bonaparte determined that the United States should unite in enforcing his continental system. The origin and object of this celebrated system, and its effects on the commerce of the United States, are explained in this work; and the power and views of Bonaparte, at this period of his career, are well described.

'The mind is impressed with a singular sensation, in beholding a great conqueror, just reposing from one of his most signal victories, in the capital of the sovereign, whose army he had rather destroyed than defeated, issuing decrees, that embraced, in their desolating effects, almost every sea of the civilized world. The power of Napoleon Bonaparte was scarcely bounded by any river on the continent of Europe. In gaining his great victories, in adding state after state to his dominions, in placing brother after brother upon the thrones of the old nations, whose dynasties he had thrown down, he seems to have been fulfilling his proper part,—to have been accomplishing the destinies of which, under Heaven, he was the humble instrument. Wherever he marched, he carried a force with him sufficient to effect his purposes. This was the legitimate exercise of the vast power, with which he was intrusted, by Providence, for objects which it is not yet altogether in the reach of man to comprehend. But when he extended his ambition to the ocean; when he undertook to overwhelm whole countries, by maritime decrees, we perceive that he has left the orbit, in which it was his destiny to move; and we feel, that the unity of his theatrical character is destroyed. pp. 120, 121.

France was powerful by land, England by sea; and in their unexampled struggle for preeminence, particularly on the ocean, both were guilty of unparalleled violations of maritime rights, and both vindicated their proceedings on the principles of retaliation. That the United States, for these violations of their rights, had legitimate causes of war against both, there can be little doubt; and the only question was, whether, in the peculiar state of the world, it was wise, politic, or necessary for them to select either for their enemy. The various measures, which at last induced the United States to make a selection, together with the negotiations, which ended in the treaty of Ghent, are

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

stated by the author with his usual ability and fairness, and this statement concludes the volume.

This work evinces throughout much industry and research, and will be found a valuable addition to American history. It may be perused with special profit by those, who would be instructed in that portion of the history of the country, relating to its intercourse and connexions with foreign powers.

ART. VII.—1. *Supplement to the American Ornithology of Alexander Wilson; containing a Sketch of the Author's Life, with a Selection from his Letters; some Remarks on his Writings; and a History of those Birds, which were intended to compose Part of his Ninth Volume. Illustrated with Plates, engraved from Wilson's Original Drawings.* By GEORGE ORD. Philadelphia. 1825. J. Laval and S. F. Bradford.

2. *American Ornithology; or the Natural History of Birds, inhabiting the United States, not given by Wilson; with Figures drawn, engraved, and colored, from Nature.* By CHARLES LUCIAN BONAPARTE. Vol. I. Philadelphia. 1825. S. A. Mitchell, Publisher; W. Brown, Printer.

WHEN we compare the present state of the world with what is called antiquity, there is nothing in which the superiority of the later ages appears more conspicuous, than in the advancement of the natural sciences, or discoveries of the laws, operations, and characteristics of the physical creation Lord Bacon has told us, that the common way of talking about antiquity is erroneous, and that men have begun to reckon at the wrong end. The old age of the world, he says, is the proper period to be thus denominated, and not the green years of youth and inexperience. We of the present day are in fact the true ancients, and Zoroaster, Pythagoras, Plato, Aristotle, and others, whose lot it was to come upon the stage in the opening scene of the drama of human existence, are in reality the younger brethren of the great family of mankind. They had the imagination, the fire, and the inquisitiveness of youth, the power of genius and the resources of intellect, but, without the light of

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

experience, they wandered in dark paths and desert wastes, and gathered but little of the genuine fruit of knowledge. Science made but slow progress in their hands; they contrived systems, which served as prison houses to the mind, rather than instruments for unfolding its faculties, and sending it abroad to seek nourishment at the fountains of truth; and, what was the worst of all, they had the art to construct these systems so ingeniously, to rivet their parts together so firmly, and clothe them with such attractions, as to awaken the admiration and reverence of after times, and produce an influence, the ill effects of which are felt to the present day.

The philosophers of early times amused themselves with speculations, fancies, dreams, which had little to do with the realities of things, or the obvious laws of nature. Witness the cosmogony of the Persians and Egyptians, the physical theories of the Greeks, that beautiful fabric of the material world first conceived by Democritus, matured by Epicurus, and adorned by the brilliant poetry of Lucretius. Witness the mythology of all the early nations, the agents to which they ascribed natural phenomena, their deities, demigods, and local divinities. Nature was not studied, nor its laws understood; knowledge was at a stand, truth hidden, and experience unknown. The master spirits, who governed the mind for so many centuries, were as much in the dark as the most humble and uninformed. That great magician, Aristotle, whose wand was so potent, 'after having trod in the open plains of history,' if we may credit lord Bacon, 'and viewed the works of nature, yet dug to himself a dungeon, and filled it with the vainest idols;' and Plato, the *divine* Plato, according to the same high authority, was not only a 'well bred sophister, a tumid poet, and fanatical divine,' but he 'turned men's thoughts from the history of nature, and from things themselves, and taught the mind to enter into itself, and there, under the name of contemplation, to tumble over its own blind and confused idols.' Thus it was with those, who were called philosophers, and received the homage of the world for many ages, as the oracles of wisdom, and the true interpreters of nature. Aristotle wrote a history of animals; Theophrastus, his pupil, a treatise on stones, and another on plants; Pliny the elder compiled a work embracing all the branches of natural knowledge common in his time; but history acquaints us with little, that can be dignified with the name of science, till within two hundred years. Bacon himself was the first to detect the errors

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

of preceding times, to point the way and set the example in pursuing scientific inquiries, on just and permanent principles.

From that period the study of the sciences has been, not one of the most agreeable only, but most useful, which has engaged the efforts of genius and industry. If we take in the whole compass of the sciences, indeed, as embracing the works and laws of nature in their widest extent, it may safely be said, that the modern improvements in society, view them as you may, have been owing more to the investigations of science, than to all other causes. Look at the single discovery of Newton, in demonstrating the great law of the universe; trace this law from its action on the heavenly orbs, down to the minutest objects of nature around us, and behold it regulating every motion, sustaining the organization of matter, balancing the world on its centre, and ruling the affinities between the smallest particles in the masses of material things. Examine its operations as applied to chemistry, and witness the extraordinary and beneficial results, which have grown out of this science, since it has been pursued according to the principles of the new philosophy of Bacon and Newton. The recent triumphs of science are seen everywhere, giving a new aspect to social existence, improving the arts and multiplying the enjoyments of life; they are seen in the increased facilities of navigation and commerce, manufactures, agriculture, and the minor branches of industry. And what is more than all, a barrier has been fixed, beyond which the minds of men will not range in search of impossibilities and absurdities. Whole lives of labor and ingenious research will not be lost, as formerly, in dreaming about the philosopher's stone, the elixir of life, and other vagaries of a bewildered brain. Truths have been discovered, and principles settled, which will serve as future guides, and help forward, to an indefinite limit, a knowledge of the properties, uses, and ends of nature.

But when we descend to what have been called, by way of distinction, the *natural sciences*, as applicable to the three great kingdoms of nature, the mineral, vegetable, and animal, the utility of such studies may seem less obvious. We apprehend, however, that, if the subject be viewed in its proper relations, no objection can be raised on this ground. There is doubtless nothing in the economy of nature, which may not be known to advantage by the beings, who live here in the midst of its infinitely varied operations, and who are furnished with capacities, which enable them to turn all knowledge to some useful ac-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

count. Who can tell, moreover, how much one part depends on another; how much the mineral may affect the vegetable, and the vegetable the animal? We know that there are close affinities between the whole, that one relies on another for life and support, and that all contribute in general to the comfort of social man. Without aids from the mineral kingdom, we should be destitute of machinery and implements for executing the necessary operations in the arts of life; from animals and vegetables we are clothed and fed. Now it may not be clear at once, what special and immediate benefit will be conferred on the human race, by the labors of a life spent in gathering up, naming, and describing the shells, which are driven to the beach by the waves of the sea, or in examining and marking the peculiarities of different spires of grass and plants, that grow in wilds and solitudes; but let it be remembered, that great and substantial results can be brought only out of these minute investigations, that a methodical arrangement of all the parts is necessary to constitute a perfect whole; let this be realized, and these studies of the naturalist will be found to have important bearings.

The nomenclature of the sciences threatens, undoubtedly, to throw an embarrassing obstacle in the way of rapid inquiry, and to retard for a time the progress of desirable knowledge. Names are multiplying beyond the compass of memory, and almost beyond the acquisition of an ordinary life. There is no remedy for this inconvenience, but it will gradually be diminished. When all the marked varieties in the departments of nature shall have been examined, described, and named, the only task then to be accomplished will be to methodize and simplify the facts thus collected, and establish a permanent classification. The system of nature will then be exhibited in its harmony and beauty, and the extent to which its various parts may be converted to the uses of man will be understood; or, at least, all the elements necessary for pursuing the study with this view will be established.

So broad a range, indeed, we need not take, to discover the utility of the natural sciences. If nothing more were aimed at in pursuing them, than amusement, an agreeable occupation, or an elegant accomplishment, they would claim a distinguished rank among liberal studies. A mind trained to the accurate observation of nature will receive a tone, and possess resources fitting it for contentment and happiness, which it cannot derive in so high a degree from any other kinds of study. The

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

book of nature is always open, and the person, who from habit feels a pleasure in reading it, will ever have at hand the best antidotes against those common maladies of the mind, which beset the great mass of mankind for the want of engaging topics of thought, and incitements to application. Again, the natural sciences, as now pursued, contribute to the perfection of the arts, and the taste of the community is thereby refined, as its knowledge is enlarged, and means of enjoyment multiplied. To illustrate this fact, by eminent examples, we need only refer to Wilson's and Bonaparte's Ornithology, and Say's beautiful work on insects, all published in this country, and all, we will add, deserving a place in every collection of books, public or private, in which it is deemed an object to treasure up memorials of the talents, taste, and skill of those, who have made the most successful researches in our natural history, and published them in a style that does credit not more to the authors and artists, than to the nation.

But we are wandering wide of our purpose. We did not design, when we began, to read a solemn lecture on the ancients, nor to compose a dissertation on the dignity of science, nor to talk of the utility and influence of a just knowledge of nature; we set out with no other intention, than to hazard a few remarks on the two works, whose titles are printed at the head of this article. We say *hazard*, for really we have not the affectation to pretend to an acquaintance with the subjects on which these books treat, and therefore we shall not say a word about genus or species, nor discuss any such question as whether the 'Forktailed Flycatcher' is properly called *Muscicapa Tyrannus*, according to Linné, or *Tyrannus Savana*, as set forth by Vieillot, and adopted by Mr Bonaparte. Matters of this dignity belong only to the initiated, and should not be lightly handled. Besides, were we as deep in the mysteries of science, as Linné himself, or Buffon, our Journal would be no place in which to display this knowledge, either to instruct the unlearned, or to astonish the skilful by the compass of our attainments. After this frank acknowledgement, we hope no offence will be taken, that we should presume to review books, which we do not understand. A sad, dull, heartless employment indeed, would reviewers have of it, if they were to be shut up within these limits, and if all books must be understood before the critic can be allowed to sharpen his quill. In the first place, it may be charitably believed, that very few authors understand

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

what they write. Why deny to reviewers the same privilege? In the next place, the craft would soon come to an end, if such rigid rules were adopted; for how many can you find, who will confess, that they fully understand another's book, however successful the author himself may have been in fathoming his own thoughts? It is a well established axiom, in short, drawn from the practice of ages, that writing and understanding are quite different things. Let it not be charged against us, therefore, that we abet any innovation in uttering a few remarks, touching two books on ornithology, although we are fain to own, that we know not one bird from another, except as we see them flying in the air, or hear their warblings in their wonted haunts.

After these confessions, we presume our readers will be quite as well pleased to listen to the authors themselves, in their own language, as to anything we can say; and in this particular we shall gratify them pretty freely in what remains of this article. In addition to the high scientific value of these works, they present specimens of the most beautiful typography, accurate delineations from nature, and exquisite coloring, which have appeared in this country. The first, called a Supplement to Wilson's Ornithology, published by Mr Ord, contains several plates, which exhibit birds engraved from Wilson's original drawings, and intended by that distinguished ornithologist for a part of the ninth volume of his great work, had he lived to complete his task. Mr Ord deserves the warmest thanks of the public, for bringing forward these remains of Wilson, in a style so elegant, and with accompaniments, which give them additional value and interest. A large portion of the volume is occupied with a memoir of the author, interspersed with many original letters, and closed with a series of critical remarks by the editor on the various literary productions of the ornithologist. Although these materials are thrown together without studied method, or rigid selection, yet they are fraught with entertainment, and show the prominent points of his character in strong relief.

So much has already been said of Wilson, so justly are his labors appreciated, and so wide is his fame, that we shall forbear to enlarge on these topics. He was a Scotchman by birth; the first years of his residence in this country were devoted to schoolkeeping in Pennsylvania; an early acquaintance with the venerable Bartram kindled within him a love of science, and after he commenced his ornithological inquiries, he pursued them for the remaining short period of his life with an enthusiasm,

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

perseverance, and self devotion, which have rarely been equalled. He died in Philadelphia, August 23d, 1813, at the age of fortyseven. His *American Ornithology*, executed under every possible disadvantage, and with encouragement so slender, as hardly to keep him from the heavy pressure of want, is a monument to his name, that will never decay. The old world and the new will regard it with equal admiration. 'We may add, without hesitation,' says Mr Bonaparte, 'that such a work as he has published, in a new country, is still a desideratum in Europe.' To accomplish such a work, with all the facilities, which the arts and knowledge of Europe afford, would confer no common distinction; but when it is considered, that Wilson taught himself, almost unassisted, the arts of drawing and engraving; that he made his way in the science with very little aid from books or teachers; that he entered a path in which he could find no companions, none to stimulate his ardor by a similarity of pursuits or communion of feeling, none to remove his doubts, guide his inquiries, or to be deeply interested in his success; when these things are considered, the labors of Wilson must claim a praise, which is due to a few only of the solitary efforts of talent and enterprise.

In the strictest sense of the terms, Wilson was a man of genius; his perceptions were quick, his impressions vivid; a bright glow of feeling breathes through his compositions. In the professed walks of poetry his attempts were not often fortunate, but his prose writings partake of the genuine poetic spirit; a lively fancy, exuberance of thought, and minute observation of the natural world, are strongly indicated in whatever has flowed from his pen. He travelled for the double purpose of procuring subscriptions to his book, and searching the forests for birds; and some of his graphic descriptions of the scenery of nature, and the habits of the winged tribes, are inimitable. Sometimes he walked; at others descended rivers in a canoe; again he was on horseback, in a stagecoach, or a farmer's waggon, as the great ends of his wanderings could be most easily attained. The cold repulses of the many, from whom he solicited subscriptions, he bore with equanimity, undaunted by disappointment, unsubdued by toil and privation; the acquisition of a new bird, or of new facts illustrating the habitudes of those already known, was a fountain of joy in his gloomiest moments; it poured the waters of oblivion over the past, and gave him new energy in his onward course. The following beautiful extract is from a letter to Mr Bartram.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

'That lovely season is now approaching, when the garden, woods, and fields, will again display their foliage and flowers. Every day we may expect strangers, flocking from the south, to fill our woods with harmony. The pencil of Nature is now at work, and outlines, tints, and gradations of lights and shades, that baffle all description, will soon be spread before us by that great master, our most benevolent friend and father. Let us cheerfully participate in the feast he is preparing for all our senses. Let us survey those millions of green strangers, just peeping into day, as so many happy messengers come to proclaim the power and munificence of the Creator. I confess, that I was always an enthusiast in my admiration of the rural scenery of Nature; but, since your example and encouragement have set me to attempt to imitate her productions, I see new beauties in every bird, plant, or flower, I contemplate; and find my ideas of the incomprehensible first cause still more exalted, the more minutely I examine his works.

'I sometimes smile to think that while others are immersed in deep schemes of speculation and aggrandizement—in building towns, and purchasing plantations, I am entranced in contemplation over the plumage of a lark, or gazing like a despairing lover, on the lineaments of an owl. While others are hoarding up their bags of money, without the power of enjoying it, I am collecting, without injuring my conscience, or wounding my peace of mind, those beautiful specimens of Nature's works, that are forever pleasing. I have had live crows, hawks, and owls—opossums, squirrels, snakes, lizards, &c. so that my room has sometimes reminded me of Noah's Ark; but Noah had a wife in one corner of it, and in this particular our parallel does not altogether tally. I receive every subject of natural history that is brought me; and though they do not march into my ark from all quarters, as they did into that of our great ancestor, yet I find means, by the distribution of a few five penny *bits*, to make them find the way fast enough. A boy not long ago, brought me a large basket full of crows. I expect his next load will be bullfrogs, if I don't soon issue orders to the contrary. One of my boys caught a mouse in school, a few days ago, and directly marched up to me with his prisoner. I set about drawing it that evening, and all the while the pantings of its little heart showed it to be in the most extreme agonies of fear. I had intended to kill it, in order to fix it in the claws of a stuffed owl, but happening to spill a few drops of water near where it was tied, it lapped it up with such eagerness, and looked in my face with such an eye of supplicating terror, as perfectly overcame me. I immediately untied it, and restored it to life and liberty. The agonies of a prisoner at the stake, while the fire

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

and instruments of torment are preparing, could not be more severe than the sufferings of that poor mouse; and insignificant as the object was, I felt at that moment the sweet sensations that mercy leaves on the mind when she triumphs over cruelty.' pp. 42, 43.

The passage, which we are now about to quote, is part of a letter to Alexander Lawson, dated Lexington, Kentucky, April 4th, 1810.

'Having now reached the *second* stage of my bird catching expedition, I willingly sit down to give you some account of my adventures and remarks since leaving Pittsburg; by the aid of a good map, and your usual stock of patience, you will be able to listen to my story, and trace all my wanderings. Though generally dissuaded from venturing by myself on so long a voyage down the Ohio, in an open skiff, I considered this mode, with all its inconveniences as the most favorable to my researches, and the most suitable to my funds, and I determined accordingly. Two days before my departure the Alleghany river was one wide torrent of broken ice, and I calculated on experiencing considerable difficulties on this score. My stock of provisions consisted of some biscuit and cheese, and a bottle of cordial, presented me by a gentleman of Pittsburg; my gun, trunk, and great coat, occupied one end of the boat; I had a small tin occasionally to bale her, and to take my beverage from the Ohio with; and bidding adieu to the smoky confines of Pitt, I launched into the stream, soon winding away among the hills that everywhere enclose this noble river. The weather was warm and serene, and the river like a mirror, except where floating masses of ice spotted its surface, and which required some care to steer clear of; but these to my surprise, in less than a day's sailing, totally disappeared. Far from being concerned at my new situation, I felt my heart expand with joy at the novelties which surrounded me; I listened with pleasure to the whistling of the red bird on the bank as I passed, and contemplated the forest scenery as it receded, with increasing delight. The smoke of the numerous sugar camps, rising lazily among the mountains, gave great effect to the varying landscape; and the grotesque log cabins, that here and there opened from the woods, were diminished into mere dog-houses by the sublimity of the impending mountains. If you suppose to yourself two parallel ranges of forest covered hills, whose irregular summits are seldom more than three or four miles apart, winding through an immense extent of country, and enclosing a river half a mile wide, which alternately washes the steep declivity on one side, and leaves a rich flat forest clad bot-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

tom on the other, of a mile or so in breadth, you will have a pretty correct idea of the appearance of the Ohio. The banks of these rich flats are from twenty to sixty and eighty feet high, and even these last were within a few feet of being overflowed in December, 1808.

'I rowed twenty odd miles the first spell, and found I should be able to stand it perfectly well. About an hour after night I put up at a miserable cabin, fiftytwo miles from Pittsburg, where I slept on what I supposed to be corn stalks, or something worse; so preferring the smooth bosom of the Ohio to this *brush heap*, I got up long before day, and, being under no apprehension of losing my way, I again pushed out into the stream. The landscape on each side lay in one mass of shade, but the grandeur of the projecting headlands and vanishing points, or lines, were charmingly reflected in the smooth glassy surface below. I could only discover when I was passing a clearing by the crowing of cocks; and now and then in more solitary places the big horned owl made a most hideous hallowing that echoed among the mountains. In this lonesome manner, with full leisure for observation and reflection, exposed to hardships all day, and hard births all night, to storms of rain, hail, and snow, for it froze severely almost every night, I persevered, from the twentyfourth of February to Sunday evening, March 17th, when I moored my skiff safely in Bear Grass Creek, at the rapids of the Ohio, after a voyage of seven hundred and twenty miles.' pp. 217—220.

For the gratification of such of our readers, as have not seen Wilson's great work, we shall select one or two specimens of his descriptions, which are happy and well sustained.

'The plumage of the Mocking Bird, though none of the homeliest, has nothing gaudy or brilliant in it; and, had he nothing else to recommend him, would scarcely entitle him to notice; but his figure is well proportioned, and even handsome. The ease, elegance, and rapidity of his movements, the animation of his eye, and the intelligence he displays in listening, and laying up lessons from almost every species of the feathered creation within his hearing, are really surprising, and mark the peculiarity of his genius. To these qualities we may add that of a voice full, strong, and musical, and capable of almost every modulation, from the clear mellow tones of the wood thrush, to the savage screams of the bald eagle. In measure and accent he faithfully follows his originals. In force of sweetness and expression he great improves upon them. In his native groves, mounted upon the top of a tall bush or half grown tree, in the dawn of dewy morning, while the woods are already vocal with a multitude of warblers,

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

his admirable song rises preeminent over every competitor. The ear can listen to *his* music alone, to which that of all the others seems a mere accompaniment. Neither is this strain altogether imitative. His own native notes, which are easily distinguishable by such as are acquainted with those of our various song birds, are bold and full, and varied seemingly beyond all limits. They consist of short expressions of two, three, or at the most five or six syllables; generally interspersed with imitations, and all of them uttered with great emphasis and rapidity; and continued with undiminished ardor, for half an hour, or an hour, at a time. His expanded wings and tail, glistening with white, and the buoyant gaiety of his action, arresting the eye, as his song most irresistibly does the ear. He sweeps round with enthusiastic ecstasy. He mounts and descends as his song swells or dies away; and as my friend Mr Bartram has beautifully expressed it, "He bounds aloft with the celerity of an arrow, as if to recover or recal, his very soul, which expired in the last elevated strain." While thus exerting himself, a bystander, destitute of sight, would suppose that the whole feathered tribes had assembled together, on a trial of skill, each striving to produce his utmost effect, so perfect are his imitations. He many times deceives the sportsman, and sends him in search of birds that perhaps are not within miles of him; but whose notes he exactly imitates. Even birds themselves are frequently imposed on by this admirable mimic, and are decoyed by the fancied calls of their mates; or dive with precipitation into the depths of thickets, at the scream of what they suppose to be the Sparrowhawk.' pp. 205.

The description of the Bald Eagle is given with remarkable spirit, and with imagery so minute and glowing, as to attest its truth.

'This distinguished bird, as he is the most beautiful of his tribe in this part of the world, and the adopted *emblem* of our country, is entitled to particular notice. He has been long known to naturalists, being common to both continents, and occasionally met with from a very high northern latitude, to the borders of the torrid zone, but chiefly in the vicinity of the sea, and along the shores and cliffs of our lakes and large rivers. Formed by nature for braving the severest cold; feeding equally upon the produce of the sea, and of the land; possessing powers of flight capable of outstripping even the tempests themselves; unawed by anything but man; and from the ethereal heights to which he soars, looking abroad, at one glance, on an immeasurable expanse of forests, fields, lakes, and ocean, deep below him; he appears indifferent to the little localities of change of seasons; as in a few

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

minutes he can pass from summer to winter, from the lower to the higher regions of the atmosphere, the abode of eternal cold; and thence descend at will to the torrid or the arctic regions of the earth. He is therefore found at all seasons in the countries which he inhabits; but prefers such places as have been mentioned above, from the great partiality he has for fish.

'In procuring these he displays, in a very singular manner, the genius and energy of his character, which is fierce, contemplative, daring, and tyrannical; attributes not exerted but on particular ocasions; but when put forth, overwhelming all opposition. Elevated upon a high dead limb of some gigantic tree, that commands a wide view of the neighbouring shore and ocean, he seems calmly to contemplate the motions of the various feathered tribes that pursue their busy avocations below; the snow white gulls slowly winnowing the air; the busy tringæ coursing along the sands; trains of ducks streaming over the surface; silent and watchful cranes, intent and wading, clamorous crows, and all the winged multitudes that subsist by the bounty of this vast liquid magazine of nature. High over all these hovers one, whose action instantly arrests his attention. By his wide curvature of wing, and sudden suspension in air, he knows him to be the fish hawk settling over some devoted victim of the deep. His eye kindles at the sight, and balancing himself, with half opened wings, on the branch he watches the result. Down, rapid as an arrow from heaven, descends the distant object of his attention, the roar of its wings reaching the ear as it disappears in the deep, making the surges foam around. At this moment the looks of the Eagle are all ardor; and levelling his neck for flight, he sees the Fish Hawk emerge, struggling with his prey, and mounting into the air with screams of exultation. These are the signal for our hero, who, launching into the air, instantly gives chase, soon gains on the Fish Hawk, each exerts his utmost to mount above the other, displaying in these rencontres the most elegant and sublime aerial evolutions. The unincumbered Eagle rapidly advances, and is just on the point of reaching his opponent, when with a sudden scream, probably of despair and honest execration, the latter drops his fish; the Eagle poising himself for a moment, as if to take a more certain aim, descends like a whirlwind, snatches it in his grasp ere it reaches the water, and bears his ill gotten booty silently away to the woods.' pp. 207—209.

Mr Ord devotes several pages to criticisms on Wilson's writings, both in prose and poetry, which throughout bear the marks of fairness and discrimination; the partiality of friendship seems neither to have biassed the opinions, nor guided the pen of the

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

critic. As a poet, he allows his author very little merit, and justly considers his fame to rest on the extraordinary talents displayed in his Ornithology, and some parts of his epistolary writings. We have only to add, that we cannot commend Mr Ord's judgment in printing some of the letters, which he has selected from Wilson's correspondence. We refer particularly to parts of the letters from Boston, Washington, Charleston, and Savannah; and even a portion of the letter from Lexington, printed during his lifetime, might have been omitted with advantage. Wilson's quick observation must have discovered to him many things in his travels, which would appear peculiar, odd, or ludicrous, when compared with his local associations, and in a sportive hour there was no harm in describing them in his own way, for the amusement of a friend; but when such things are printed in a grave quarto, they are out of place, and produce a disagreeable, rather than a pleasing effect. Broad caricatures of the manners and habits of a people, drawn from the observations of a day, or perhaps an hour, however they may have beguiled a few of the writer's listless moments, or contributed to the gratification of his friends, are not matters for the world's instruction. In Lexington market Wilson saw, among other 'strange things, skinned squirrels cut up into quarters,' and his letter, announcing this important fact, was published not long afterward. Some patriotic Lexingtonian questioned the statement, and called it a joke. Wilson replied, that it was no joke, but a solemn matter of fact, correcting, however, a slight error from his note book, in which he had entered the word 'halves,' instead of 'quarters;' and so it was maintained, that, in Lexington, 'skinned squirrels were brought to market in the form of a saddle of venison, not in that of a leg or a shoulder of mutton.' This seems to have silenced the Lexingtonian, for we hear no more about him. The whole correspondence is recorded, however, in Mr Ord's Supplement. We repeat, in short, that a more rigid selection would have been just to the fame of Wilson, and added to the value of this volume.

It has already been mentioned, that Wilson died before his work was completed. It is the professed object of Mr Bonaparte to carry through the unfinished design of his predecessor. The first volume is published, and two more are to follow, which, together with the nine volumes of Wilson, he thinks will complete the whole subject of American Ornithology. Of the

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

scientific merits of Mr Bonaparte's labors, we have said enough to show, that it is not for us to judge, but we may safely testify our admiration of the beautiful manner, in which every part of this first volume has been executed. Neither trouble nor expense has been spared, and the author, artists, and publisher claim unqualified praise, each in his respective department. The drawing, engraving, and coloring of the birds are in the very first style, and show a manifest improvement in these arts since the time of Wilson. The author tells us, that the drawings were made by Mr Titian Peale 'from the recent bird, and not from preserved specimens.' This advantage the artist was enabled to possess by his wide travels, and particularly with Major Long, in his Expedition to the Rocky Mountains. From drawings thus prepared, the engravings were executed by Mr Lawson, who distinguished himself in engraving some of Wilson's birds, and who, from his long practice and skill, it is said, 'may be justly styled the first ornithological engraver of our age.' The coloring was done 'from nature' by Mr Rider. We have been thus particular in mentioning names, because excellence of so high an order, as these specimens of art indicate, deserves to be commemorated. Nor should the part performed by Mr Mitchell, the publisher, be passed over, in these days of wretched printing. A more splendid work, as a whole, we certainly have never seen from the American press. Posterity will regard it among the Aldines of our day.

Two or three of Mr Bonaparte's descriptions must suffice, as the only tribute, which we are qualified to render to his talents as an ornithologist; though we accord to him cheerfully the fame he holds among those, who are in the highest ranks of science, and we will not be backward in expressing our due share of gratitude to a foreigner, of his qualifications, who has made his home among us, and takes so deep and practical an interest in the scientific progress of our country. To this sentiment we believe there is no American, whose heart will not respond, and who will not look with eager hope to the successful prosecution of Mr Bonaparte's ornithological labors, or any other projects of science, in which his taste or leisure may incline him to engage.

The following is an extract from Mr Bonaparte's curious account of the Burrowing Owl.

'Venerable ruins, crumbling under the influence of time and vicissitudes of season, are habitually associated with our recol-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

lections of the Owl; or he is considered as the tenant of sombre forests, whose nocturnal gloom is rendered deeper and more awful by the harsh dissonance of his voice. In poetry he has long been regarded as the appropriate concomitant of darkness and horror; and, when heard screaming from the topmost fragments of some mouldering wall, whose ruggedness is but slightly softened by the mellowing moonlight, imagination loves to view him as a malignant spirit, hooting triumphantly over the surrounding desolation! But we are now to make the reader acquainted with an Owl to which none of these associations can belong; a bird, that, so far from seeking refuge in the ruined habitations of man, fixes its residence within the earth; and, instead of concealing itself in solitary recesses of the forest, delights to dwell on open plains, in company with animals remarkable for their social disposition, neatness, and order. Instead of sailing heavily forth in the obscurity of the evening or morning twilight, and then retreating to mope away the intervening hours, our Owl enjoys the broadest glare of the noon day sun, and flying rapidly along, searches for food or pleasure during the cheerful light of day.'

'The votaries of natural science must always feel indebted to the learned and indefatigable Say, for the rich collection of facts he has made whenever opportunities have been presented, but more especially in the instance of this very singular bird, whose places of resort in this country, are too far distant to allow many the pleasure of examining for themselves. We feel doubly disposed to rejoice, that the materials for the history of our birds, are drawn from his ample store, both on account of their intrinsic excellence, and because it affords us an opportunity of evincing our admiration of the zeal, talents, and integrity, which have raised this man to the most honorable and enviable eminence as a naturalist.'

'In the trans-Mississippian territories of the United States, the Burrowing Owl resides exclusively in the villages of the Marmot, or Prairie Dog, whose excavations are so commodious, as to render it unnecessary that our bird should dig for himself, as he is said to do in other parts of the world, where no burrowing animals exist. The villages are very numerous, and variable in their extent, sometimes covering only a few acres, and at others spreading over the surface of the country for miles together.

'They are composed of slightly elevated mounds, having the form of a truncated cone, about two feet in width at base, and seldom rising as high as eighteen inches above the surface of the soil. The entrance is placed either at the top or on the side, and the whole mound is beaten down externally, espe-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

cially at the summit, resembling a much used foot path. From the entrance, the passage into the mound descends vertically for one or two feet, and is thence continued obliquely downwards, until it terminates in an apartment, within which the industrious Marmot constructs, on the approach of the cold season, the comfortable cell for his winter's sleep. This cell, which is composed of fine dry grass, is globular in form, with an opening at top capable of admitting the finger; and the whole is so firmly compacted, that it might, without injury, be rolled over the floor.

'It is delightful during fine weather, to see these lively little creatures sporting about the entrance of their burrows, which are always kept in the neatest repair, and are often inhabited by several individuals. When alarmed, they immediately take refuge in their subterranean chambers, or if the dreaded danger be not immediately impending, they stand near the brink of the entrance, bravely barking and flourishing their tails, or else sit erect to reconnoitre the movements of the enemy.

'The mounds thrown up by the Marmot in the neighborhood of the Rocky Mountains, have an appearance of greater antiquity than those observed on the far distant plains. They sometimes extend to several yards in diameter, although their elevation is trifling, and, except immediately surrounding the entrance, are clothed with a scanty herbage, which always distinguishes the area of these villages. Sometimes several villages have been observed almost entirely destitute of vegetation; and recollecting that the Marmot feeds exclusively on grasses and herbaceous plants, it seems singular, that this animal should always choose the most barren spot for the place of his abode. However this may be accounted for, it at least affords an opportunity of beholding the approach of his enemies, and allows him to seek, within the bosom of the earth, that security which he has neither strength nor arms to command.

'In all these Prarie Dog villages the Burrowing Owl is seen moving briskly about, or else in small flocks scattered among the mounds, and at a distance it may be mistaken for the Marmot itself, when sitting erect. They manifest but little timidity, and allow themselves to be approached sufficiently close for shooting; but if alarmed, some or all of them soar away, and settle down again at a short distance; if further disturbed, their flight is continued until they are no longer in view, or they descend into their dwellings, whence they are difficult to dislodge.'

'The burrows into which these Owls have been seen to descend, on the plains of the river Platte, where they are the most numerous, were evidently excavated by the Marmot, whence it has been inferred by Say, that they were either common, though

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

unfriendly residents of the same habitation, or that our Owl was the sole occupant of a burrow acquired by the right of conquest. The evidence of this was clearly presented, by the ruinous condition of the burrows tenanted by the Owl, which were frequently caved in, and their sides channelled by the rains, while the neat and well preserved mansion of the Marmot, showed the active care of a skilful and industrious owner. We have no evidence that the Owl and Marmot habitually resort to one burrow; yet we are assured by Pike, and others, that a common danger often drives them into the same excavation, where lizards and rattlesnakes also enter for concealment and safety.' pp. 68—71.

The author dwells at much length on the description of the Wild Turkey, which is accompanied with a beautiful drawing. He asserts manfully the original claim of America to this bird. The first certain account of it, he says, was written in 1525, by Oviedo, in his History of the West Indies. It was sent from Mexico to Spain, in the early part of the sixteenth century, and thence to England about the year 1524. By degrees it spread over Europe, and within a century was introduced into Asia, Africa, and the European colonies. The origin of the English name, *Turkey*, as applied to this bird, is a little singular. It was first brought to England at a time, when it was customary to denote articles of luxury from foreign countries by this appellation, and as this bird was a delicacy of novel and rare occurrence, it took the same name. This error was perpetuated, from the circumstance of its being supposed to have come, through Spain, from Asia or Africa. Some naturalists represented it as having been known to the ancients, but they confounded it with the Guinea Fowl. The Turkey is in fact indigenous in America, and was a stranger to the old world, till after the discoveries of Columbus. Mr Bonaparte has given a list of twentyseven names, by which it has been called among different tribes of Indians. From the author's full description of this bird, we shall select two or three paragraphs, in which are exhibited some of its habits.

'When about to cross a river, they select the highest eminences, that their flight may be the more certain; and here they sometimes remain for a day or more, as if for the purpose of consultation, or to be duly prepared for so hazardous a voyage. During this time the males gobble obstreperously, and strut with extraordinary importance, as if they would animate their companions, and inspire them with the utmost degree of hardihood;

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

the females and young also assume much of the pompous air of the males, the former spreading their tails, and moving silently around. At length the assembled multitude mount to the tops of the highest trees, whence, at a signal note from a leader, the whole together wing their way towards the opposite shore. All the old and fat ones cross without difficulty, even when the river exceeds a mile in width; but the young, meagre, and weak, frequently fall short of the desired landing, and are forced to swim for their lives. This they do dexterously enough, spreading their tails for a support, closing their wings to the body, stretching their neck forwards, and striking out quickly and forcibly with their legs; If in thus endeavoring to gain the land, they approach an elevated or inaccessible bank, their exertions are remitted, they resign themselves to the stream for a short time, in order to gain strength, and then with one violent effort, escape from the water. But in this attempt, all are not successful; some of the weaker, as they cannot rise sufficiently high in air to clear the bank, fall again and again into the water, and thus miserably perish. Immediately after these birds have succeeded in crossing a river, they for some time ramble about without any apparent unanimity of purpose, and a great many are destroyed by the hunters, although they are then least valuable.'

'These birds are guardians of each other, and the first who sees a Hawk or Eagle gives a note of alarm, on which all within hearing lie close to the ground. As they usually roost in flocks, perched on the naked branches of trees, they are easily discovered by the large Owls, and when attacked by these prowling birds, often escape by a somewhat remarkable manœuvre. The Owl sails around the spot to select his prey; but notwithstanding the almost inaudible action of his pinions, the quick ear of one of the slumberers perceives the danger, which is immediately announced to the whole party by a *chuck;* thus alarmed, they rise on their legs, and watch the motions of the Owl, who, darting like an arrow, would inevitably secure the individual at which he aimed, did not the latter suddenly drop his head, squat, and spread his tail over his back; the Owl then glances over without inflicting any injury, at the very instant that the Turkey suffers himself to fall headlong towards the earth, where he is secure from his dreaded enemy.'

'Wild Turkeys are very tenacious of their feeding grounds, as well as of the trees on which they have once roosted. Flocks have been known to resort to one spot for a succession of years, and to return after a distant emigration in search of food. Their roosting place is mostly on a point of land jutting into a river, where there are large trees. When they have collected at the

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

signal of a repeated gobbling, they silently proceed towards their nocturnal abodes, and perch near each other; from the numbers sometimes congregated in one place, it would seem to be the common rendezvous of the whole neighborhood. But no position, however secluded or difficult of access, can secure them from the attacks of the artful and vigilant hunter, who, when they are all quietly perched for the night, takes a stand previously chosen by daylight; and, when the rising moon enables him to take sure aim, shoots them down at leisure, and, by carefully singling out those on the lower branches first, he may secure nearly the whole flock, neither the presence of the hunter, nor the report of his gun intimidating the Turkeys, although the appearance of a single Owl would be sufficient to alarm the whole troop; the dropping of their companions from their sides excites nothing but a buzzing noise, which seems more expressive of surprise than fright. This fancied security, or heedlessness of danger, while at roost, is characteristic of all the gallinaceous birds of North America.' pp. 82—91.

In connexion with these characteristics of the Turkey, and the description of the Bald Eagle above quoted, it may be no improper place here to introduce Dr Franklin's humorous remarks, as contained in one of his letters, concerning the bird, which was chosen for the emblem of our nation.

'"Others object to the Bald Eagle," says he, "as looking too much like a *Dindon*, or Turkey. For my own part, I wish the Bald Eagle had not been chosen as the representative of our country; he is a bird of a bad moral character; he does not get his living honestly; you may have seen him perched on some dead tree, where, too lazy to fish for himself, he watches the labor of the Fishing Hawk; and when that diligent bird has at length taken a fish, and is bearing it to its nest for the support of his mate and young ones, the Bald Eagle pursues him, and takes it from him. With all this injustice he is never in good case; but like those among men, who live by sharping and robbing, he is generally poor, and often very lousy. Besides, he is a rank coward; the little Kingbird, not bigger than a sparrow, attacks him boldly, and drives him out of the district. He is therefore, by no means a proper emblem for the brave and honest Cincinnati of America, who have driven all the *Kingbirds* from our country; though exactly fit for that order of Knights, which the French call *Chevaliers d'Industrie*. I am on this account not displeased that the figure is not known as a Bald Eagle, but looks more like a Turkey. For in truth the Turkey is, in comparison, a much more respectable bird, and withal a true original native of America.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Eagles have been found in all countries, but the Turkey was peculiar to ours. He is besides, (though a little vain and silly, 'tis true, but not the worse emblem for that,) a bird of courage, and would not hesitate to attack a grenadier of the British guards, who should presume to invade his farm yard with a red coat on."' p. 95.

In closing this article we owe it to ourselves to state, that we cannot pretend to have rendered justice to the peculiar merits of the authors, whose works we have, perhaps too unadvisedly, taken in hand. If any shall be incited, by what has been said, to consult the volumes themselves, and bestow their praise and patronage on so noble an enterprise, our end will be answered.

ART. VIII.—1. *A Discourse pronounced before the Phi Beta Kappa Society, at the Anniversary Celebration, on the Thirtyfirst day of August*, 1826. By JOSEPH STORY. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, Little, & Wilkins. 1826.

2. *An Oration pronounced at New Haven, before the Society of Phi Beta Kappa, September* 12, 1826. *On some of the Considerations, which should influence an Epic or a Tragic Writer, in the Choice of an Era.* By JAMES A. HILLHOUSE. New Haven. A. H. Maltby & Co. 1826.

SIR WILLIAM JONES has remarked, while referring to the beauty of some of the oriental manuscripts, that he could almost find it in his heart, to regret the invention of the art of printing. We do not carry the passion for calligraphy to this extent; nor would we carry any passion to the extent of leading us to regret the art of printing. As there is, however, a bright and a dark side to all things, it is not unprofitable occasionally to consider the evils, which are incident to the growth and diffusion of great improvements. Simply to suppose that we are positive gainers, by all the difference between the refined arts of modern life and the ruder processes of antiquity, is to fall into great error. Every discovery and every invention, which effects a great change in human pursuits, although in the long run it may be most highly beneficial, not only must be qualified by some evil consequences directly incident to it, but by the loss of some advantages of the previously existing arrangement, which are displaced and destroyed by the innovation.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

This reflection is more important to be made, by way of explaining the otherwise seemingly inexplicable fact, that after all the brilliant improvements, inventions, and discoveries of the modern world, the general impression left on the mind, after forming an acquaintance with the moral and social character and condition of men, in the civilized states of antiquity and of the modern world, certainly is, that there is no such vast difference between them; that between ancient literature and modern literature there is by no means that contrast, which prevails between manuscript circulation and the circulation by the press; and, in a word, that in the possession of means and instruments, seemingly so much more powerful, various, and numerous, the grand and final effect on human character is by no means so much greater, than that of the ancient means and instruments of improvement, as might have been expected. In saying this, we design by no means to disturb the old controversy, on the comparative merit of the ancients and moderns; nor to wake from their long rest the shades of Tassoni, Perrault, or Wotton. We are willing to grant that, in the result of a general induction, improvements of most brilliant character, and in vast numbers, have been made by the moderns over the ancients; but in the last and great effect of all improvements, the formation of character, we confess our doubts whether modern history presents a larger average of mature, elevated, and finished character than ancient history.

The only application, which we wish at present to make of this remark, is to say, that among those favorable circumstances, which, to a certain degree, compensated for the deficiencies of the ancient arts and improvements, was the superior activity of the social principle. The modern arts, resulting in a division of labor, have broken up the combinations of men, which were formerly necessary, and sent each to his cell, to work out by himself, and with the co-operation of his new found enginery, those effects, which, in an earlier stage of society, were produced by processes more dependent on social union. This applies, if to nothing else, most certainly to the effect of the art of printing on literature. Where no mode of publication existed, but the tedious one of manuscript transcription, the reading of prose works, and the recitation or chanting of poetical works, to assembled multitudes, on triumphant occasions, on festal days, in the temples, and at the games, was, in the first instance, the necessary mode of communication. The historian and the poet, who would make their productions known, were obliged to go

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

with them to the resorts of their countrymen. As secondary, but at the same time highly stimulating and efficient consequences, were the animation resulting from the numbers of a living audience; the added graces of elocution in the reading and declamation; the instrumental accompaniment of the lyrical chant; perhaps the rival exhibition of contemporary authors, drawn together for the same object; and at all events, the cheering and kindling sympathy of the allied arts, of the liberal sports, and of the gorgeous pageantry of the festivals or the games.

Herodotus read a portion of his History in the assembly at Athens, and at the Olympic games. It would not be difficult, we suppose, to make this sound very ridiculous, by an ill applied reference to modern analogy. We will even own, that if Hume had undertaken to go through his History at a Westminster meeting, in New Palace Yard; or Chief Justice Marshal should insist upon running over his five volumes, upon the turf at the Long Island races, it might in either case, without any disparagement to these honored names, be rather a tedious affair to the assembled multitudes. But we apprehend, that when the father of history rehearsed his Muses to the Athenian people; and when Pindar sung his Olympian lyrics, in the temple of Jupiter at Elis, it was an exhibition as auspicious to the general power and effect of literature on the improvement of a people, as that of a pile of nicely bound volumes in the window of a bookseller's shop, to be taken home and carefully conned in private.

If we go farther back into antiquity, to the period of the epic muse, and allow ourselves to consider the Iliad and Odyssey as the growth of an age, which knew no tablets but the hearts and memories of a delighted audience, catching and treasuring the strains of the wandering minstrel; and then compare these poems, even as productions of art, with the best, which art aiding genius has since produced, we shall feel more strongly the truth of the proposition with which we started. For be it also remembered, that under a dispensation of printed literature, we can with less confidence argue from a distinguished writer to an enlightened community. We frequently behold the phenomenon of what is called 'a man in advance of his age;' as well we may. For where a man is enabled, as all are to a certain degree enabled, to form and to improve himself, without that action and reaction of society anciently so essential, he may, in the exercise of strong powers in a happy direction, leave his

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

contemporaries in the rear. But in antiquity, the author was formed much more by the audience. That, which is written to be recited, declaimed, and chanted, implies a community prepared to relish and appreciate it. A minstrel poetry, especially, cannot rise far above the level of the taste and intelligence of the age; and we think it quite fair to argue, for instance, that the period of the world, when the sixth canto of the Iliad formed the entertainment of some hero's festal board, or the interlude of the games at some public celebration, though it were a period more remote than the return of the Heraclidæ, the siege of Troy, ay, or the expedition of the Argonauts, was no savage period. The conception of the scene of Hector and Andromache is one of civilized life; it is the conception of an age of sentiment, exclusively as that is claimed for the modern world and the romantic nations.

Every institution, in modern times, which has the effect of adding to the advantages peculiar to the art of printing, those which belonged to the ancient forms of literature, promises the beneficial result of a double agency in promoting the improvement of society. It may even be necessary to aim at such a combination, by way of corrective of those evils, which our new and all powerful arts have introduced. It is precisely these objects, which we think may be attained by our literary societies. An assembly composed chiefly of well educated and intelligent persons, collected under the sanction and within the precincts of respectable establishments for education, addressed on literary topics by men of science and letters, under circumstances likely to produce a great effort to excel, is no faint image of the assemblies of the ancient world, before which the great productions of cultivated minds were exhibited. It is true, these assemblies are with us occasional; anciently, they were essential; here they are a relaxation; to the elder world they were an important part of the organization of social life. Everything, however, which is done to give dignity and interest to these assemblies, has a favorable operation and tendency of the kind alluded to. Science is wooed from her cell. She casts off her monkish stole, and relaxes from her stern and melancholy aspect. The cheerful countenances of an intelligent assembly, the welcome note of applause, the animation of the living voice, the communication of thought, feeling, and sentiment from breast to breast, on topics of polite literature, of taste, or of philosophy, make these occasions a source of high gratifica-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

tion, and ultimately must make them the means of essential and wide spread benefit. No pains should be spared, to add to their interest and importance, by the selection of those, who are able and willing to render them attractive.

The public taste of our community runs decidedly, but by no means too strongly, in favor of holidays of all kinds, and especially those of a literary character. Respectable as some of them are already, they are likely to become more so, by the honorable rivalry of sister institutions, by the improved character of the audiences usually assembled, and by the consequently strengthened demand for talent to entertain and satisfy a fastidious assembly. It is now several years, since on occasion of the public appearance of the lamented Buckminster, on the anniversary of the society of Phi Beta Kappa at Cambridge, the public attention and curiosity were excited and gratified to a degree, which has left a permanent and not yet expended effect. To this institution, we are accordingly indebted for almost the only literary effort of one of the most accomplished of our scholars and one of the most elegant of our writers. His performance on the occasion alluded to, will ever remain a jewel in our literature. It is matter of serious regret, that the combination of certain exercises of a totally different character, we mean the prize declamations, with the performances of the society, should have been allowed to take place. The audience, collected for a different object, is thus preoccupied and wearied out; and what might in itself be the most rational and agreeable of our purely literary festivals, is made tedious and fatiguing. Believing these to be the feelings of the public, we hope the encroachment here alluded to will be abated.

For the reasons to which we have already referred, we think the public gratitude is due to the eminent jurist, to whom we owe the first of the performances named at the head of this article. We regard him as deserving well of our republic of letters, for lending the sanction of his name and of his example to this literary celebration; as he has especially so deserved of it, by his well conceived, well digested, and well written Discourse. Most of the readers of this Journal are already acquainted with it, and it scarcely needs our aid, either by way of analyzing or extracting, to make it known to the literary public, in proportion to its merits. It is indeed a highly finished sketch of a most extensive subject, presenting nothing less than a discriminating, comprehensive, and accurate review of the present state of

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

science and letters, particularly in this country, by way of marking the characteristics and peculiarities of the age and of its cultivation. It is a report from a strong, highly cultivated, and richly stored mind, not of some single professional study, not of some favorite branch of individual pursuit, but of the whole broad domain of intellectual culture, as presenting itself to a mind competent and resolved to go along with the age. It is the less easy to attempt any selection or comparison of the parts of this performance, as one of its merits is the ready transition from one member to another of a long series of interesting topics, treated in due proportion to their relative importance, all with spirit, and many with felicity and power. Were we to make an indication, by way of specimen, we should say, that the remarks on female education, on classical learning, and on the deceased patriarchs of America, were among those, to which the reader might first turn back, to prolong and repeat the gratification of the perusal.

'Nor should it be overlooked, what a beneficial impulse has been thus communicated to education among the female sex. If christianity may be said to have given a permanent elevation to woman, as an intellectual and moral being, it is as true, that the present age, above all others, has given play to her genius, and taught us to reverence its influence. It was the fashion of other times to treat the literary acquirements of the sex, as starched pedantry, or vain pretensions; to stigmatize them as inconsistent with those domestic affections and virtues, which constitute the charm of society. We had abundant homilies read upon their amiable weaknesses and sentimental delicacy, upon their timid gentleness and submissive dependence; as if to taste the fruit of knowledge were a deadly sin, and ignorance were the sole guardian of innocence. Their whole lives were "sicklied o'er with the pale cast of thought," and concealment of intellectual power was often resorted to, to escape the dangerous imputation of masculine strength. In the higher walks of life, the satirist was not without color for the suggestion, that it was

"A youth of folly, an old age of cards;"

and that elsewhere, "most women had no character at all," beyond that of purity and devotion to their families. Admirable as are these qualities, it seemed an abuse of the gifts of Providence to deny to mothers the power of instructing their children, to wives the privilege of sharing the intellectual pursuits of their husbands, to sisters and daughters the delight of ministering knowledge in the fireside circle, to youth and beauty the charm of refined sense, to age and infirmity the consolation of studies,

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

which elevate the soul and gladden the listless hours of despondency.

'These things have in a great measure passed away. The prejudices, which dishonored the sex, have yielded to the influence of truth. By slow but sure advances education has extended itself through all ranks of female society. There is no longer any dread, lest the culture of science should foster that musculine boldness or restless independence, which alarms by its sallies, or wounds by its inconsistencies. We have seen that here, as every where else, knowledge is favorable to human virtue and human happiness; that the refinement of literature adds lustre to the devotion of piety; that true learning, like true taste, is modest and unostentatious; that grace of manners receives a higher polish from the discipline of the schools; that cultivated genius sheds a cheering light over domestic duties, and its very sparkles, like those of the diamond, attest at once its power and its purity. There is not a rank of female society however high, which does not now pay homage to literature, or that would not blush even at the suspicion of that ignorance, which a half century ago was neither uncommon nor discreditable. There is not a parent, whose pride may not glow at the thought, that his daughter's happiness is in a great measure within her own command, whether she keeps the cool sequestered vale of life, or visits the busy walks of fashion.

'A new path is thus opened for female exertion, to alleviate the pressure of misfortune, without any supposed sacrifice of dignity or modesty. Man no longer aspires to an exclusive dominion in authorship. He has rivals or allies in almost every department of knowledge; and they are to be found among those, whose elegance of manners and blamelessness of life command his respect, as much as their talents excite his admiration. Who is there, that does not contemplate with enthusiasm the precious fragments of Elizabeth Smith, the venerable learning of Elizabeth Carter, the elevated piety of Hannah More, the persuasive sense of Mrs Barbauld, the elegant memoirs of her accomplished niece, the bewitching fictions of Madame D' Arblay, the vivid, picturesque, and terrific imagery of Mrs Radcliffe, the glowing poetry of Mrs Hemans, the matchless wit, the inexhaustible conversations, the fine character painting, the practical instructions of Miss Edgeworth, the great KNOWN, standing in her own department by the side of the great UNKNOWN?' pp. 15—18.

We were more especially gratified by the remarks on classical literature, as being made at a seasonable moment, and as an authority not open to suspicion. To the testimony of professedly academical men, those whose habits are formed to the

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

study of the ancients, and still more those whose reputation and interest are connected with that study, it is always easy to object a selfish bias. It is not easy to make such an objection, with much plausibility, against the authority of Mr Justice Story, a man, who, however, meritorious as a scholar, owes his standing in society to a different kind of learning; and whose prepossessions must of necessity be such as are formed in the busy practice of the most practical of professions. The testimony of such a man possesses all the weight which is due to mere authority of any kind, and which, though no reverencers of mere authority, we think ought to be regarded, in the present case, as a counterpoise to the weight of authorities, which have lately been busily accumulated in the opposite scale. The truth, however, here, as in most other controversies, is in the golden mean, where it is placed in fact by the discriminating observations of Mr Justice Story. To deny all importance and all value to the study of classical literature, is a bigotry just as ridiculous, as to make that study the sole business of education. Most of the argumentation at present current on this head is aimed at particular abuses; at the extravagances of individuals; or at the excess of that which is good in moderation; or the wrong application of what is good in the right place. The most illogical confusion, moreover, prevails, of the different objects to be attained, by the study of the ancient languages.

This study may be pursued by the man of taste, for the literature of which they are the depository; by the historian, not merely in order to be sure of the sense of historical authorities, but in order to get at what is sometimes the only clew to be had, to the affinity of nations; by the philosopher of the mind, in order to survey the operations of the human intellect to the greatest advantage in the structure of the most perfect systems of expressing thought; by the members of the different professions, in order to master that portion of the literature of their professions, which is contained in these languages; and what is still different from all the rest, this study may be pursued at school and at college, as the study which is found, upon the whole, to furnish the most eligible basis of education. A great part of what we have seen written and heard said of late, on the topic of the languages, resolves itself into showing that the reasons which recommend the study to one class of men do not apply to others. In reference to the last mentioned use of the dead languages, namely, that of being a convenient basis for educa-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

tion, the argument against them has the advantage of confining itself to pointing out the objections to this study. We have not perceived any attempt to name any other study or system of studies, which, generally introduced into our schools and colleges as the occupation of that part of the time spent on the languages, would serve a better purpose. One thing we will say, from some experience and some observation, that the chemistry, the mineralogy, the geology, the geography, the history, the ethics of children eight years old are not worth a groat; and that the study of the languages, on judicious principles, is well calculated to exercise and train every power of their minds.

But it is time to make more particular allusion to the other performance, which is named at the head of this article, the Oration of Mr Hillhouse, at New Haven. Its subject is stated to be 'some of the considerations, which should influence an epic or tragic writer, in the choice of an era.' The high reputation of Mr Hillhouse as a poet, naturally awakens a curiosity to hear him discourse of the secrets of the art. We would learn, if possible, the process by which a gifted genius is conscious of aiming to exercise its peculiar mastery over the minds and hearts of men. The present performance consists of a description and comparison of what are styled the Classic, Romantic, and Scripture eras, in reference to their adaptation for the purposes of poetry; and especially of epic and dramatic poetry. The plan accordingly affords scope for a number of fine observations on the influence of society and manners on the efforts of genius. Mr Hillhouse has entered, to a considerable extent, into the comparison of the Classic and Romantic schools, a distinction first raised into celebrity, if not suggested, by the Schlegels and Madame de Staël. In separating the Scripture era from the Romantic, and making a third school out of the materials which it presents, Mr Hillhouse has proposed a new distinction, which it may not be easy to bring into systematic connexion with the other two. We understand the genius of the Romantic poetry to be the peculiar character of the North, united with the spirituality of revealed religion; and in his delineation of the second school, or that of Romantic poetry, Mr Hillhouse resorts to the influence of the true religion as the source of some of the best of its qualities. Whether there is, in fact, any such thing as the distinction set up by the continental critics, and not yet well rooted in England and America, of a Classic and Romantic school, is with us a matter of doubt. But

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

whether the existing phenomena of the poetical world afford materials for still a third distinction; whether there is, or can be, in the nations of European race, a school of poetry, which is neither Classic nor Romantic, may much more strongly admit of question. To deal fairly, however, by Mr Hillhouse, we will quote the passage, in which he makes this distinction.

'The source last alluded to, is separate and distinct,—of loftier character and more sublime associations. It is the blended history and poetry of a peculiar people. It celebrates, not the actions of fabulous heroes, not the extermination of imaginary monsters, not the exploits of the barbarous nobility of a bloody age; it treasures not the responses of lying oracles, nor the predictions of Flamens and Augurs; it is the sacred and eternal witness of the faith of patriarchs, of the truth of prophets, of the valor of godlike kings; of the existence, agency, and purposes of invisible spirits; of the power, providence, and immutable character of God; it is strewed with flowers of paradise, it wafts to our souls the breath of Heaven, its inspiration is the efflux of the Holy One. Its mighty influence on the character of man, and on the spirit of poetry, has been alluded to. At the unconsuming fire of the Hebrew Scriptures, it is acknowledged that the greatest masters have kindled their sublimity, and from the tender legacy of our Savior, snatched their finest traits of disinterestedness and love.' pp. 19, 20.

If it be meant merely here to speak, as a matter of fact, of the sacred history as a separate field, in which to fix the action of an epical or a dramatic composition, the question is indeed narrowed; and it is then obvious to remark, that a poem or a sacred subject may be, accordingly as it is treated, a Classic or a Romantic poem. Thus we suppose, for we profess not to be very deep in this chapter, that the Athalie of Racine is a Classic, and the Messiah of Klopstock a Romantic poem. The Bruto Secondo of Alfieri must certainly be Classic, although it is one of those tragedies, in which its author deprecatingly remarks, *in vece di donne, interlocutore e attore, fra molti altissimi personaggi, era il popolo.* Shakspeare's Julius Cæsar presents us the same subject on the same scene, the same high personages, and if not the same people, unquestionably a set of worthy citizens, possessing a much nearer resemblance, than the *popolo* of Alfieri, to the Roman *plebs.* But, nevertheless, we take Shakspeare's Julius Cæsar to be a Romantic tragedy; for if this be also Classic, then indeed that term is one of most ample comprehension.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Not, however, to enlarge on this, the question, whether the Scriptures and Scripture history afford favorable materials for poetry, is a very fair question; and is treated by Mr Hillhouse with spirit and taste, and in a highly glowing manner. Mr Hillhouse evidently feels, as he expresses, a strong prepossession in favor of this source of poetical associations; and the success of his own efforts on Scripture subjects accounts for and justifies the preference.

He discusses with much ingenuity and fervor, and describes in the affirmative the question, which was so positively decided in the negative by Dr Johnson, regarding the aptness of sacred themes for the purposes of poetry. In the following judicious reflection, however, he has suggested to us a principle, in which is probably contained the whole practical philosophy of the subject.

'But whatever be the intrinsic merits of any era, there is a consideration, which may be paramount to them all. Subject to fortunate or sinister impressions, long before we can estimate their power, the mind sometimes receives early an unalterable bias. The strength of a second nature thus incorporated with our moral faculties, their successful exertion can only be in concert with it. Let no friendly adviser, no presuming critic, *no* external influence overrule an emphatic whisper from within. That inward monitor only knows the harp, which will respond to the poet's touch. Wherever it directs him—whether to the classic lyre, or the shell of heroes, or the wizard harp of fairyland, or the blood stirring string of the feudal minstrel, or the viol of a prophet or an angel, let him snatch that—from that or none, will he draw sounds of power.' p. 27.

There have been four epic poets in the world, generally considered as standing alone in a circle, to which no other has a full right to be introduced. We doubt if any inference can be drawn from the consideration of the subjects of their various poems, which authorizes the preference of any one era or region over others, as adapted to poetry. The materials of the Iliad are drawn from the heroic age of Greece, and, according to the general opinion, from that age, as contemplated by one, who lived not long after its close. The action of the Æneid is placed in a period somewhat similar, or rather in one which the poet has chosen to assimilate to the heroic age of Greece; for, in reality, Italy, at the time when the action of the Æneid is supposed to have taken place, no more resembled Greece in

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

the time of the Trojan war, than the Aztecs resembled the Vandals. In either case, a state of partial civilization is the only point of resemblance. Virgil, however, by a simple flourish of the wand, set down all Greece, men and gods, the manners of Troy and Olympus, among the Rutulians and the Etruscans. It would be hard to tell, what period furnished Dante with his materials. If any period or any region, it must be considered as Italy in the middle ages; for it is into the characters of his contemporaries, that most of the soul of his poetry is breathed. The Paradise Lost is built on materials, which purport to be drawn from Scripture history; but how little in it of what is most astonishing, beautiful, or pathetic, is to be traced to any other source than the poet's own invention! It is where he wanders widest from his directory, that his flight is most admired; and there is at least one eminent passage, the account of the Creation, in which the struggle between the record and invention manifestly embarrasses, and had well nigh proved too much for the poet. We feel almost inclined to say, that the choice of the subject and the theatre of the action, are of no consequence to the epic or the dramatic poet; that is, of the first rate excellence. It may be worth while, if a man thinks seriously of writing such a poem (to name one to which Mr Hillhouse alludes) as Samor, or Leonidas, or Madoc, or the Araucana, or the Henriade, to cast about him for a subject; to choose the right school, and obey all its laws. But the poet of epic genius is a school to himself, and critical disquisition on eras and countries, as far as such poets are concerned, is rather a subsequent description of the facts relative to their productions, than a direction, which a subsequent kindred genius can need, or will follow. There is one school, however, to which even genius may be exhorted to adhere; to which when it has adhered, it has wrought its greatest wonders. It is that school, in which Classic, and Romantic, and Hebrew are alike unknown; where ancient and modern cease to stand in contrast; the school of Nature. To the conceptions of this school belong the child of Hector, terrified at his father's plume; and the father setting his helmet to the ground, not so much that he may pray to the Divinity with his head uncovered, as to relieve his infant's terrors. In the fourth book of the Æneid, Virgil bursts away from the shackles of a cold imitation, is natural, and is beautiful. And what is it but nature, the human passions and affections, which, infused by Dante and by Milton into the breasts of

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

angels and demons, enable us to sympathize with beings in themselves too far above us or beneath us, for the uses of poetry. In this school, Shakspeare is most uniformly the master. He paints men; historically they are often most remote from their supposed originals. The Britons in Lear, are about as much like the inhabitants of England before the Romans, as they are like the Greeks or the Trojans. But it is no matter what he calls them. The historic names of Kent and Gloster may be grouped with Gonerils and Regans; the dynasty of Bruto with those of York and Lancaster. So too with his dramas in the region of ancient history. He sets before us men, and calls them Romans. In manners and tone, they are not Romans; but they are something better, they are men. Alfieri, on the other hand, introduces us to a circle of exceedingly senatorial and stately characters, who are dressed in a toga, swear by the immortal gods, and are Romans every inch of them, but are not men. It is acting, stage effect; not life and reality. And yet we hold of Alfieri, that he is the most gifted of those, to whom the true poetical inspiration has not been given. He added to talent, ambition, generosity, and courage, an ardent love of liberty; and it ought to be some title to consideration with an American critic, that he dedicated a tragedy to Washington.

But we have wandered farther than we designed from the immediate business before us. We owe to Mr Hillhouse acknowledgments like those, which we have already rendered to Mr Justice Story. He deserves the thanks of the community for a performance of great beauty, spirit, and taste; and for having done so much to add celebrity to the literary anniversary on which it was delivered. Besides a great deal of good sense, ingenious remark, and elegant learning in this discourse, there is, as might have been expected from Mr Hillhouse, not a little genuine poetry.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ART. IX.—*The Greek Lexicon of Schrevelius translated into English, with many Additions.* Boston. Cummings, Hilliard, & Company; University Press, Hilliard & Metcalf. 1826.

THIS work has many claims to attention, both from the importance of the department to which it belongs, and the very respectable names, which are offered as guaranties for the excellence of its execution. This effort to bring the study of the Greek language more directly within the notice and the means of every English scholar, is calculated to have a strong and salutary influence on the state of Greek erudition in the country. We have examined the present Lexicon with feelings of gratitude toward those, who have given us what was greatly desired, and are happy in making our acknowledgments to them for their endeavors to facilitate the study of the Greek, by availing themselves of the English idiom in the interpretation of the words.

Justice to the American editors requires, that all the faults, which may be observed in the work, should not be charged upon them; the original is answerable for the greater part. They do, indeed, make themselves reponsible for the signification annexed to each word. Schrevelius's Latin interpretations, they rightly observe, are often ambiguous and unsatisfactory; and 'they have, to the best of their ability, rendered the English explanations from the original Greek.' They have also endeavored to introduce all words, which occur in the books now studied in our schools; but, in this attempt, they do not flatter themselves that they have fully succeeded. In some instances they have marked the quantity of doubtful vowels, and the responsibility of this improvement rests entirely with them.

Before proceeding any further, we may be permitted to express our sincere respect for the original editor of the present work. Owing to the dilatory manner in which it has been prepared and published, Greek and English Lexicons have anticipated it; but it is due to Mr Pickering to say, that he was the first among us to set himself earnestly to the task of preparing such a Lexicon, and that his design was matured and laid before the public long before any similar work was announced in Great Britain. We mention this circumstance with satisfaction, as creditable to the state of learning among us, and as

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

particularly honorable to him, by whom the plan was thus early devised and partly executed; since his own generous love for letters interested him in the cause of Greek literature, who might have found, in the successful exercise of a laborious profession, a sufficient excuse for neglecting classical pursuits, and he has steadily prosecuted and accomplished a design, which no one but a man of literary leisure and habits, or of great perseverance, could have been expected to form. Professor Oliver, of Dartmouth College, translated about half of the work; the original editor made nearly all the additions, and revised the whole.

It is, indeed, remarkable, that it should have so long remained the practice to explain the Greek language through the medium of the Latin. At first it was the readiest course; for in all Europe the republic of letters numbered but few citizens; but why this custom has been continued in England is hard to determine, unless it be, that an intimate knowledge of the Latin was unreasonably and disproportionably valued, and the attachment to established usage unduly cherished. The views of the Preface on this point are sound, and the arguments used convincing. Schrevelius, with his Latin interpretations, will hardly be again printed in this country. The present translation supersedes its use entirely.

A Greek and English Lexicon was much desired and needed. It may, however, be a question with some whether Schrevelius, in the present state of Greek learning, is on the whole the best that could have been selected. On this subject it is proper for the editors to speak for themselves.

'The basis of the work is *Schrevelius's* well known Lexicon; which, on the whole, in the present state of Greek studies in this country, was thought preferable to any other manual adapted to *the use of schools.*

'That work has been long in general use in England, and has passed through numerous editions in that as well as other parts of Europe. Dr Knox, whose judgment in a question of practical education is entitled to much respect, in comparing it with the other Lexicons in use at the time when he wrote, observes, though perhaps in stronger terms than he would use at the present day, that "Schrevelius is with great propriety everywhere used; that it is particularly adapted to the Greek Testament and to Homer; and is well suited both to the beginner and to the proficient in Greek."

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

'The Editors are aware of the objections, which have been made to Schrevelius's work by some writers of authority; but those objections are almost exclusively applicable to the *Latin interpretation*, which, it must be acknowledged, is extremely defective. Considered, however, as a simple vocabulary of the Greek language, particularly with the numerous additions, which have been made of the words occurring in the various school books, that have been introduced since the author's time, it appears to be sufficiently ample and well suited to the use for which it was originally designed, the use of the younger classes of Greek students. Indeed, it would seem natural, that a work, which has been gradually built up and augmented with new words in proportion as the introduction of new books created new wants in our schools, should be sufficiently well adapted to those wants. This mode of constructing a work, however, by the labors of successive editors, undoubtedly exposes it to an objection of another kind, the want of unity in design and execution. But the want of that unity will not be so much felt in a dictionary as in books of some other descriptions. Schrevelius's work was originally extracted from that of Scapula (an edition of which he superintended), and seems to have been first published in 1654. It was more particularly intended for the Old and New Testaments, Homer, Hesiod, Musæus, Theognis, Pythagoras, and other Gnomic authors, Isocrates, Æsop, &c.; the author also made use of Portus's Ionic and Doric Lexicons, and the Lexicon to Pindar and the other Lyric poets. It was published several times on the continent of Europe during the author's life; and within that period was also republished in England by Hill, who enlarged it considerably, more particularly with words from the New Testament, the Septuagint, and the principal poets and orators, as well the school books of the day. He also added many of the aorists and other tenses, which are so profusely and unnecessarily scattered through the work. Besides the editorial labor bestowed upon it in England, it has received improvements in France, where a valuable edition of it was published in 1779, by the celebrated scholar Vauvilliers; who, as the late editor Lécluse observes, "mercilessly" retrenched all the expositions of the anomalous words and other parts of the work. These retrenchments have been restored by Lécluse, whose edition of 1819 is the latest French one that happens to have come to our knowledge. Of the other editions, we have before us the Italian one in folio, and a German one, reprinted from the Paris copy, at Vienna, in 1822, under the editorial superintendence of Kritsch; who justly observes, that the Lexicon, as now published, is very different from the ancient editions both in copiousness and expla-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

nations; and, he adds, that in its present state it may with propriety be recommended to the student in Greek literature.'

Preface, pp. 6, 7.

From this statement it would appear, that the editors have spared no pains in consulting the best editions, and we may presume that Schrevelius has never appeared in a form so accurate and complete. Without going into an inquiry, as to the merits of this Lexicon, compared with other manuals of more recent date, the judgment of the editors in their selection, may doubtless be sustained by the circumstance of the present extensive use of Schrevelius in our schools. To ensure success, in a first attempt of this sort, it was desirable to avoid awakening in any a prejudice, which might defeat the purpose of the undertaking. This book is intended only for boys at school, and should not be criticised as a work designed for advanced scholars, or as a key to the difficulties of the Greek language. Other Lexicons, of which we shall hereafter speak, must be resorted to for this purpose.

The editors have introduced several improvements. Upwards of two thousand articles are either wholly new, or have received additions. These are distinguished by a bracket placed at the end. It would have been better, if the new matter could have been enclosed in brackets, so that we could at once ascertain how much is new. From the nature of the undertaking, however, this would have been very difficult, perhaps impossible. At present it requires a careful comparison with the original, to ascertain what is added. So far as we have compared them, we have found the articles improved; yet in some cases the additions were not very important. Several learned disquisitions are interspersed, under the *prepositions* and the *article*, in which the uses of these are explained with as much minuteness, as would be advantageous to young students.

The editors were manifestly right in retaining the accents. The absence of them in Greek books is an imperfection, which we hope will not be tolerated. Among the Lexicons consulted by the editors, as mentioned in the Preface, were those of Hedericus, Planche, Schneider, Wahl, and, for some of the last pages, Jones. The Lexicon of Dr Jones, but for an inconvenient arrangement of the words, the fatal omission of the accents, and the many peculiarities of opinion, which he has suffered to exert an influence throughout the whole, would be of great value for common use, till the excellent qualities of the Greek and German dictionaries can be transferred to the Greek and English.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The editors give their opinion, that Greek should be commenced before Latin. We would say likewise, that Greek may now be studied independently of Latin. We see no reason, why a lover of learning, who in early life has not had the fortune to learn either, should not learn the Greek language only, if he has time but for one.

We hold it a duty further to notice the neat typographical execution of this work, and cheerfully bear testimony to the merits of the gentleman, who superintends the University Press, at Cambridge, and has given us more accurate editions of classical works than had ever before appeared in America.

We shall not enter into minute criticisms of this work; the general character of Schrevelius, as a school dictionary, is well known; in its present dress it is much better suited to the wants of young students, than heretofore; and its influence in the encouragement of Greek studies we believe will be widely felt. In future editions it may be further improved, and the time will come when a manual on a better plan, and executed with a freer use of the great and successful labors of the late German lexicographers, may be adopted.

In connexion with this subject, we shall take the opportunity to add a few remarks on several of the Greek lexicons, which have from time to time gained a high reputation.

The dictionaries of living languages in common use are for the most part arranged, or intended to be arranged, in such a manner as to give the readiest information respecting the present signification and syntax of the words; and this mode is convenient where the object is, not the pursuit of literary history, but to acquire the living dialect as an actual vehicle of thought. Thus our Spanish dictionaries give us rather the language of today, than of the classic authors in Spanish literature; and he, who has learnt the tongue as now used in the journals and writings of Spain, is still far from knowing all the richness and sublimity of the Castilian. Be this method of arranging a dictionary right or wrong for the living languages, it is plainly a bad one for the ancient dialects. A language, of which not only the the origin and improvement, but the decline and extinction can be described, should be studied historically. In this way the characteristics of each age will be given, and the changes in signification of the words be explained in the order in which they took place.

The form, the significations, and the use of the word should

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

all find a place in a dictionary of a dead language, before it can claim to be perfect. We should first expect to find the word in its most simple, primitive form. Then, if there be several forms under which it appears, as is the case with a great number of words in the Greek language, these various forms must be set down and arranged in the manner, in which they are respectively deduced from one another, and the age ascertained, to which each belongs. If the orthography of the word is questionable, that too deserves consideration. And the quantity of the syllables, where they are doubtful, should also be fixed. We may further expect, that the various inflexions and changes of the word should be given, where they do not strictly conform to the general rules of conjugation or inflexion, so that he, who is acquainted with the grammar, may be able to form the remaining parts without further assistance.

The word itself being thus disposed of, its significations must be enumerated, and in chronological order. We have written monuments of the Greek language out of a period extending through more than two thousand years, during which it was spoken. In this long period the character of many words was essentially changed. In our own times how many significations have been given to words within a few years. *Liberal*, *radical*, and many others need an explanation for themselves, suited to the age. What if these words were found in a writer of Queen Elizabeth's time, and translated by a foreigner as they ought to be, if found in works of the current literature? What absurdity would ensue! And how many words there are, which in Homer differ in signification from the same in a writer of Attic prose, some centuries later! Thus, to take the first example that offers, ἀπάτη means originally *deception*, *cunning*; Æschylus uses it of an action, which he praises; and it also came to mean, *that which deceives time*, and so, *a pastime*, *amusement*. Κόσμος originally meant *order*. Thus Homer makes his men κόσμῳ καθίζειν. Pythagoras first used the word to signify *the world*. Ποιητὴς is another word of a similar kind, and the number might be indefinitely increased. We repeat it; the significations of each word should be chronologically arranged. This will bring into the first place the original and proper meaning of the word, and the abstract, the more general, the metaphorical, may then follow in philosophical order. Nor will it be safe to omit the etymologies; for though they cannot be depended upon as the sole guides to a correct interpretation, they yet point to

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

the main idea, from which the other significations must be shown to proceed.

The peculiarities of syntax should find a place in an article, designed to be complete. The proverbial expressions are to be enumerated, and even the remarkable cases of ellipsis are not to be omitted.

The times are changed from those, when the language was acquired by oral instruction, and the treasures of Greek learning were inaccessible to any but a few fortunate individuals. Our intention is, not so much to give a history of the dictionaries which have been successively made, as to call attention to the *triumvirate* of German lexicographers, who have in our days deserved to divide the harvest of applause.

The first Greek and Latin dictionary made in England was the work of Hadrian Junius, one of the most learned men of the sixteenth century. In those days scholarship was rare, and a man might play a great part in the world by means of erudition. Junius was a Dutchman by birth, but found employment in England. In 1548 he dedicated his Lexicon to the Protestant king Edward, and his books were accordingly denounced and prohibited at Rome. Shortly after we find him exercising the vocation of a poet, and, to make his peace with the papists, writing an epithalamium on the marriage of the English queen Mary. The unquiet state of England alarmed him, and he fled to the continent, when the king of Denmark invited him to his court. But the Dutchman, liking the climate of Copenhagen little, and his wife liking the Danes less, they took French leave, and came to Haerlem. Here honors were heaped upon him. He became head of the college; was commissioned by the States General to write the history of Holland; and, passing his time in literary labors, indulged himself in delightful visions of immortal renown. But the hostile Spaniards disturbed him in his learned occupations; and he fled from Haerlem. When the city was taken, his library was plundered, and his hopes of eternal fame scattered with his books. After this the air of this world did not agree with him, and he soon died of disappointment, and regret at the loss of his manuscripts and of his prospective immortality. Junius's great work is his *Nomenclator Octilinguis*, which Bayle commends as excellent, and which more recently the illustrious Wolf declares to be of value.

We should hardly allude to Henry Stephanus, (Etienne), but to acknowledge the admirable character and vast erudition of

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

his Thesaurus of the Greek language, and to lament the misfortunes of his earthly pilgrimage. If his Thesaurus is not perfect, it was nearly so for the times; and if we consider that it was made in the infancy of the typographic art, before many Greek authors had been published who have since been brought to light; when the study of etymology was yet but beginning, before the spirit and character of the Greek language were well understood; when it was necessary to choose examples sometimes from manuscripts, and sometimes from incorrect printed copies, which have received essential improvements from the labors of later critics; when the imperfect state of critical learning compelled him often to hazard conjectural emendations, and in an age, when he was obliged himself to collect many of the materials for his work; we cannot but feel a sort of reverence and admiration, as we confess that he has produced a Thesaurus of the Greek language, never yet surpassed, and meriting for its unfortunate author the respect and gratitude of all succeeding scholars. The fact can hardly be explained, except by calling to mind the wonderful family to which he belonged. The son inherited the taste and the collections, the zeal and the manuscripts of his father, his honorable art and his love of learning. In his youth, Henry the First (for these most eminent of printers are, like kings, thus distinguished in literary history) enjoyed the instruction of accomplished scholars, and hardly had he reached his twentieth year, before an edition of Horace, with notes, announced to the world his early proficiency, and gave promise of his future eminence. He must have devoted himself to learning with his whole soul, and through sorrow and adversity remained true to his choice with intense and ardent attachment. Three years of learned investigation were passed under the sky of Italy. England and the Netherlands were also visited before he established himself at Paris. During a part of his life he suffered under the most oppressive and wasting melancholy. To publish his Thesaurus, the preparations for which must have cost incredible labor, required eleven years. And not many had elapsed after its completion, before John Scapula, a man whom he had had in his employ, published a less costly lexicon, which proposed nothing of value, but what was stolen from his master. Our admirable Stephanus, dispirited and in wretched circumstances, passed the latter part of his life without any permanent place of abode, living by turns in Switzerland, France, and Germany, and at

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

last, when more than seventy years of age, died in a hospital at Lyons, a bankrupt in fortune and in mind.

Such was the melancholy fate of one of the most eminent scholars of his age, and one of the most useful of all time. His merits entitle him to profound and grateful respect; the recollection of his personal and mental sufferings mingles itself with our admiration, and makes us regret that he did not live in an age, when his worth would have ensured him more reputation and prosperity.

It is no part of our object to trace the history of Greek lexicography through all its changes. Scapula took from Stephanus, and was abridged in his turn, in 1654, by Schrevelius. The lexicon of Benedict Hedericus did not appear till 1722, and meanwhile the work of Schrevelius had all the success that it deserved. The world is quit of any further debt to the shade of its author.

Original merit was never claimed for the Lexicon of Hedericus. It was huddled together out of Scapula, a mere alphabetical register of words with borrowed interpretations, which Hedericus himself has been said not always to have understood, and which he has never been accused or suspected of having improved. Yet it so far surpassed that of Schrevelius, that it immediately came into general use on the continent. Patrick, who pretended to have improved it in London, is charged by later critics with having left the old faults quietly in their places, and augmented them with some of his own. In the meantime great progress had been made in criticism. New editions of the ancient authors appeared, to which lists of words were added, and those particularly noticed, which had not been inserted in the Thesaurus of Henry Stephens. Assisted by these works, Ernesti revised the Lexicon of Hedericus, and published an improved edition of it in 1754, and again in 1766. This was the lexicon generally used in Germany till near the close of the last century.

John Augustus Ernesti was a kind of prince among the scholars of his day. Yet greatness did not surprise him in his youth. At thirtyfour years of age he was but the associate director of the classical school in Leipsic, and was fortyfive before he received an appointment in the university as Professor Extraordinarius. Yet by degrees he grew to be a great man in the relations of life, as well as in merit. He was the first professor of theology in Leipsic, prebendary of the cathedral at Meissen,

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

decemvir of the university, the founder of a new school in philology and theology, president of a scientific society, the restorer of eloquence, and one who 'filled the lettered world with his fame,' as some one well says. When Lessing, who was a physician by profession, but also an accurate and persevering scholar, published the Wolfenbüttel fragments, which startled the learned world, Ernesti declared the librarian worthy of a doctorate in theology, and took occasion publicly in a lecture to hold him up as an example and a proof, that a thorough classical scholar is capable of accomplishing anything that he sets about. What a difference is there between that age and ours. Then a good philologian was held to be fit for every thing; but

'We have fallen on evil days,
On evil days and evil tongues have fallen;'

and now there are those who will scarcely allow a Latin and Greek scholar to be good for anything.

The success of the Hederic-Ernesti Lexicon was immense; yet its merits fall far short of the demands of the age. The Latin language did not seem the best adapted to explain the significations of the words; and a different standard of excellence in this department had been established by the criticisms and examples of several scholars in Holland. Various attempts at improvement were made, the most respectable by Haas, till at last a new era was in fact begun by the persevering erudition of John Gottlob Schneider.

He, like Ernesti, was a pupil of the Pforta, a school that has sent forth more heroes in philology, than the Trojan horse ever did in war, and on repairing to the university of Leipsic, he had the benefit of Ernesti's instructions. Schneider had at first to contend against want. At the age of eighteen he began his literary career with notes on Anacreon. A later work gained for him the regard of Heyne, and a place as the amanuensis of Brunck. This he occupied at Strasburg for three years, then lived as professor at Frankfort on the Oder thirty years, and at last found rest and happiness, an honorable competence and a grave, at Breslau, where the last ten years of his life were passed in quiet, which was made doubly agreeable by the cares and privations of his early years. He died in January, 1822. His Lexicon is but one of many monuments of his learning and activity.

Schneider is spoken of as no less amiable in the relations of private life, than eminent in the literary world. There is an air

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

of earnestness and modesty in his great undertaking. Not that he could not estimate his own worth, and find support in the consciousness of it. But there is nothing arrogant about him. Decided in his opinions, he is always ready with his reasons; and in doubtful cases he appeals to argument, not to the value of his own authority, or the extent of his own experience and critical skill. In the preface to the first edition of his dictionary, after alluding to his own model of perfection in this department, he says, 'How contented should I be, if in a work, so wearisome, and made so difficult and bitter to me by incidental circumstances, I should so far have succeeded, that a connoisseur in these things could say of me, If this man had formed his plan much earlier in life, pursued it firmly, slowly, and calmly, in the fitting leisure, with the necessary serenity of mind, and with the requisite collection of books, he would have brought his work near enough to the model, of which he had a clear conception. And after a long interval, in the third edition, made in the last years of his life, though he had been restless in his efforts to improve his work, he yet acknowledges how far it is from perfection, and breathes a pious wish, that 'some laborloving countryman may undertake to continue, enlarge, and improve it.' And again, acknowledging the many advantages he derived from the criticisms, which he had cheerfully received and made use of, the venerable veteran, for the last time editing a work, the greatest monument of the value of his life to his fellowmen, offers his gratitude to all, 'who from a love of science, and in the language of humanity, without sarcastic bitterness, will contribute anything to the perfection of the great undertaking.'

The excellent qualities of Schneider's Lexicon, which render it superior to that of Hedericus, are, a greater copiousness of words, selected from the profane writers; the omission of many words which rested on no sufficient authority, and had found their way by mistake into the Lexicons; the more accurate etymological derivation of the words; the careful investigation of the original meaning of each word; the historical and philosophical accuracy, with which the several significations are unfolded and arranged; the omission of all the analytical parts except in cases of an extraordinary nature; and the peculiar care with which the technical terms, and words belonging to natural history, are explained. Wherever he differs from Stephanus, he supports his own statement by a citation from a Greek author,

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

or a sufficient reference; and while many useless words have been retrenched, their place is supplied by others more valuable, derived from Greek authors, published since the days of Stephanus. During his long life he never was idle. Deeming it of importance for the knowledge of the Greek language to understand the state of natural science in the days of antiquity, he deliberately entered upon the study of natural history, and even pursued the branch of ichthyology to a great extent; and the object of all was mainly to make his Lexicon better.

One of the last acts of Schneider's life was the publishing of a supplementary volume to his Lexicon. It contains several thousand words from authors less frequently read, and of less intrinsic value. We mention it with the more pleasure, because it offers a gratifying example of the spirit of cooperation, successfully and cheerfully exercised; since Weigel, Buttmann, Jacobs, and Coray, with a multitude of others, may be mentioned, as having contributed to form the volume. It is a work, which should be in the scholar's library, though it will not often lie on his table.

The dictionary of Schneider was too large for general use in schools. Professor Frederic William Riemer, of Weimar, undertook to make an abridgment of it; but his mind was too original, too inquisitive, and too independent, to follow in the track of any man. His work, therefore, soon became one of a peculiar character. Riemer is a learned man, and a man of taste also. His name is well known in the polite literature of his country. The air of Weimar breathes of 'the gay science;' and numerous as is the rhyming brood, that nestle under the wings of Goethe, the two neat duodecimo volumes of the fictitious Silvio Romano have won for the Greek lexicographer a respectable rank among the poets of the ducal residence. Riemer is entirely national. His rapid mind is ingenious at tracing analogies in the derivation of words; he finds the seeds of the German wrapt up in the Greek. His pages sparkle with repartees and capital hits at his antagonists; and while you are gaining, through his interpretations, an accurate knowledge of a Greek word, you may have a chance to laugh at his puns, or smile at his chuckling, as he successfully exposes faults in the criticisms of his adversaries. Of course he is not spared by those, who suffer from his gibes; and while the public have crowned his work with most distinguished success, some cavillers have been even hardy enough to deny his learning. Riemer laughs at them all;

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

in his Preface quotes and ridicules those, who reproach him with 'frightful ignorance;' and, such is his humor, ends the last article of a book, which cost him five and twenty years' labor, with a jest.

We confess we like to use Riemer's Lexicon better than any other; every article is so lively, so exact, perspicuous, and instructive. As it followed, and at first abridged Schneider, it has the same general merits. Riemer has interspersed his pages with many little discussions, with which we are pleased, though, we confess, they do not belong properly to a Lexicon. Further, he has devised a very ingenious way of marking the quantity of doubtful vowels, without interfering with the accent. The marks are placed *under* the syllables.

Dr Francis Passow, of Breslau, was of opinion, that he could make a better book than Riemer's. Passow is a man of talents and elevated character; his name not unknown to the Muse of his country. A friend of Schneider's, and a teacher at the same university, he undertook to prepare the large work of 'the mighty master' for general use. It is plain, that Passow despises, or affects to despise, the attainments of his Weimar competitor, and at the close of one of his divisions, obviously calls in question his knowledge of Greek prosody. We shall give the claims of his dictionary to peculiar merit nearly in his own words. 'A more careful explanation of the prepositions, particles, and conjunctions, the most perfect exposition, that could be given, of the use of language in Homer and Hesiod, and the designation of the quantity of the syllables, which, before he gave the signal, had been entirely neglected, but now is already acknowledged to be indispensable; these have been and remain his chief object. As a fourth, he may add the omission or warning exposure of such forms of words, as had been coined at random by ancient and modern corrupters of language, without external authority, according to analogies of language often misunderstood.

And now, as to the labor of lexicography, we have seen with what patience and assiduity Schneider continued to use every means of improving his work, even to the latest year of his life. In the supplementary volume, published a few months before his death, he complains of no labor, but that which led to no result, and which had been forced from him by the criticisms of 'the many, who thought themselves fit to play the master over him, though they had enough to learn themselves.' Riemer kept up his spirits through twentyfive years of

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

labor, and more than twentysix hundred pages of his dictionary. Passow asks of those, who complain of the irksome and disgusting nature of such labors, what keeps them thus chained like galley slaves to the oar; and adds, that 'the rich, infinitely various, and constantly new exercise of mind, which this branch of philological studies offered, was an abundant recompense for all the labors, without which no safe step could be taken, and of which he had gone through not fewer nor less considerable, than those who complained the most loudly.'

The best edition of Schneider is the third, printed at Leipsic, in 1819. The supplementary volume appeared in April, 1821, and probably will not be reprinted, as it is not designed for universal use. By far the best edition of Riemer is his last, the fourth, which was begun in 1823, and finished in 1825. That of Passow has, as yet, been printed but once, and having been begun in 1819, was completed in 1824. Its excellence leads us to believe, that it will go through a new edition before many years. The greatest praise belongs so Schneider, because he is the father of almost all the improvements in Greek lexicography; Riemer is the most amusing, very clear and careful, the most ingenious, and, we confess, our favorite; Passow, perhaps, the most convenient for daily use, accurate, trustworthy, and complete for the learner's purposes.

It may not be out of place to add, that a new edition of Hedericus, with the alterations, omissions, and additions, requisite to make it worthy of the age, is now executing by Dr Gustavus Pinzger of Breslau, under the eye of Passow.

We have been led into so large remarks already, that we do not venture upon discussing one or two questions of which we are reminded by our subject, and on which a word might now be in season. One is, whether it is worth our while to study Greek at all in this country; for there are those, who go out as knights-errant against Latin and Greek, and fashion into the shape of monsters everything, that bears a resemblance to ancient erudition; men, who would banish the Muse of Hellas, with her own Astræa, from the earth. We mean not those, who contend, and, as we think, rightly, for more liberty in our courses of public instruction, and who would leave the wants of the country, in connexion with the tastes of those who give themselves to study, to regulate the degree of attention, which shall be paid to each separate branch of learning; but those, who are governed by an undiscriminating and impotent

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

hatred of classical learning, and rail at what they cannot understand, and, happily, cannot injure.

We also intended to point out the absurd reasoning of a late writer in the Edinburgh Review, who, in the number for June last, has defended that superficial system of instruction, which most favors the indolence of teachers, and the weakness of boys. This they now bring forward as the wonderful invention of one Mr Hamilton, the rival of him who first lighted London with gas, the great Macadamizer of the road to learning. But we find this subject anticipated, and the general principles, which must be applied to its decision, clearly and forcibly stated in our American Journal of Education; and on the general question, we content ourselves with a reference to that work.

ART. X.—*Essays upon Popular Education, containing a particular Examination of the Schools of Massachusetts, and an Outline of an Institution for the Education of Teachers.* By JAMES G. CARTER. 8vo. pp. 60. Boston. 1826. Bowles & Dearborn.

WE have lately offered some remarks on Popular Education; and we are glad to meet with such an occasion as this pamphlet furnishes, for inviting the attention of our readers again to the subject. We have read these Essays with more than a feeling of interest and pleasure; and we venture earnestly to recommend them to general perusal. They are judicious and able, full of sound and liberal views, and important suggestions. They contain much, in a brief space, and must be read for reflection, and not for entertainment. They will not answer for dreaming or dozing away a dull hour after dinner; but for a man who sits upright, and is wide awake to the state and movement of things around him, we will engage, that this pamphlet shall furnish matter to think about and act upon. Mr Carter is too much concerned for the interests, which he advocates, and has a mind too much occupied with matters of reality and importance, to care much for our entertainment. From the very limits of his work, also, he has given us a pamphlet of hints, which, as he seems to be well aware, might be easily swelled into volumes of discussions.

Our own space, it is obvious, is yet more limited; but we

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

cannot let this number of our Journal go forth, without yielding the full measure of all the encouragement, which it is in our power to give, to the plan that Mr Carter has laid before us. We say the plan, for it is to the projected Institution for the instruction of Teachers, an outline of which is given in the last Essay, that we shall principally direct our observations. All the previous Essays, indeed, are designed to prepare the way for the consideration of this project; and we undertake to say, that all the reflection, which any man may employ on the subject of popular education, all the faults he laments, all the improvement he desires, will lead him to the same result.

The course of argument, by which we ourselves have been led to this result, may be set forth in few words.

In the first place, better schools are wanted. We mean, that the Free Schools, or what are usually called, the Common, and in the country, District Schools, need to be made better, and more efficient organs of instruction and influence. Whoever does not believe this, will, of course, dismiss our argument as deficient in the first particular; and we must dismiss him, which we would gladly do, to the pages of Mr Carter, or to his own reflections; or we would rather, for the sake of a practical demonstration, send him into the midst of one of our Common Schools; a place, we are sorry to say, where very few of the body of our people, very few parents or guardians, ever go. We would ask our easy and unsuspicious advocate of the present systems, to look about him, and to mark the restlessness, or reluctance, or stupidity, that pervades all these schools. He will find some pupils reading, what every tone of their voices tells him, they do but half understand; some, poring over the pages of a grammar, or hunting out the parts of speech in a dictionary, a work altogether mechanical, of the principles of which they understand literally nothing, and of which there are thirtyfive chances out of forty, that their master understands as little; others, he will find studying geography, in such a way, that they comprehend it as vaguely as we do the geography of the moon, and care about it a great deal less, than some of us do about that luminary, who see in it volcanoes, and city walls, and the shadow of towers; and others still, scowling over a perplexing *sum* in arithmetic, to which they apply no other logic, than that of the multiplication table.

Let our inquirer meet with these children at home, and talk with them about their schools; let him enter a little into their

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

minds, for they have minds, though our common systems of instruction seem scarcely to recognise them; let him endeavor to ascertain what is the impulse, which carries these children daily to the schoolroom; and he will find, that when the novelty is worn off, the new master, the new acquaintances and objects have grown old; when the chance of being the best scholar, and the certificate of merit, and the fine present, are all out of the question; when, in short, he divests this matter of all extraneous influences, and of all that is barely mechanical, he will find, we say, that the impulse, which carries these children to school, is *necessity;* that it is (we can scarcely qualify what we are going to say) never the love of knowledge. How should it be? They learn nothing, or, what amounts very much to the same thing, nothing that they care to know. Let us be understood. They learn to read. Very well. They have taken hold of the great instrument of knowledge; but how is it applied? Let any one look over the books, which they read and study, and he will find a full half, which they absolutely *cannot* understand; and the other half, their own countenances will tell him, they do not wish to understand.

They learn to read; and it is our boast, that of the whole mass of our population, it is rare to find an individual, who has not made this acquisition. But what evidence beyond this, we ask, does the mass of our population give, of having spent from three to eight years of life at school? What do they know of grammar, or geography, or of arithmetic, excepting two or three simple rules, which would not at any time require more than a week's practice to make them familiar? Of the sciences, even in their simplest elements, they confessedly know nothing; and if they make no intellectual acquisition, beyond the art of reading, we believe it will as little be contended, that they accomplish anything of that better object of education, the forming of right mental habits, the culture of the mind for future acquisitions.

We are not now accusing the people of gross ignorance; though we apprehend, that their intelligence is overrated, and that some of our boasting on this point were better spared. The truth is, we forget that our language on this subject is only comparative. When we speak of our intelligent population, we mean, that it is more intelligent than that of Europe generally; but we are apt to transfer this comparative sense of what we say, into an absolute estimate. Be it admitted, however, that the yeomanry of this country is distinguished for intelligence, and as much

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

distinguished as any one desires to maintain, still we say, that nothing of this intelligence, but the instrument, is obtained at our Common Schools, that is, at the generality of them, for there are, it is true, a few honorable exceptions. Our citizens, as they come into life, gain, indeed, some general acquaintance with the state of the world, and with the politics of their own country; but this they gain, not from school books, but from newspapers. Of all that they actually know in the world, of all the habits of right reflection and conduct, by which they are guided in the pursuits of life, the schools, we say again, have furnished nothing.

We have spoken now and formerly of the dulness of our schools. We consider this feature of indifference, which pervades the mass of them, as bearing strongly on the argument we are pursuing. It is certain, that children are not learning anything, or anything that can turn to much account for them, when this heavy lethargy of school dulness has settled upon them. Words may fall upon the ear, and even ideas may be crowded into the memory; but to the listless slave of his task, there will be none of those relations manifest, which constitute valuable knowledge. Nor is this listlessness inexcusable. Human nature will always be true to itself. When a book will not sell, it is shrewdly guessed, that it is not worth buying. When the people fall asleep, it is too likely that the preacher is dull. When that most formidable assembly, the Congress, is addressed, and you perceive that nine tenths of its members are each one talking with his neighbor, or writing his letters, or rattling his newspaper, you are apt to think, that it is a great hardship to the speaker, who is delivering himself of the fruits perhaps of a whole session of study; till you find that his speech was pronounced, not for the benefit of the honorable gentlemen around him, but for the benefit of his own reputation among his constituents; that it was spoken not to be heard, but to be printed. And last, not least, when those, who shall yet rise to be electors, or themselves members of Congress, wear away the lingering hours in school, as if it were in a prison, and bend a deprecating or vacant eye upon the dull lesson, there is too much reason to suspect, that the lesson is not adapted to their comprehension, or certainly not to their benefit. But if there is no cause for wonder on one account, there is, at least, on another. It is truly a most extraordinary state of things. Man is, if anything, a learning animal, a creature, destined, as the very

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

end, or at least as the very process of his intellectual being, to improvement; and yet there is no business in the world so proverbially dull, there is none among us half so reluctantly pursued, as the business of learning.

We hope that our observations thus far have some tendency to produce the conviction, that something needs to be done for our Common Schools. We have dwelt longer upon these views, because they are essential, not only to our argument, but to every hope of improvement in the prevailing system of education.

And we proceed now to say, in the next place, that in order to have better schools, we must have better teachers.

There are a few schools for children, which form exceptions to the foregoing representation; and if we direct our attention to these schools, we shall discover, at once, the secret of their superiority. It is found in the superiority of the teachers. This is the sole cause; a cause indispensable, and, where it is put in operation, sufficient, and always sufficient. Materials there are for good schools in every city, village, and neighborhood, throughout the country. But it is only where a man, not only of superior intelligence, but of superior talent and tact in giving instruction, fixes himself, that such a school actually exists. And this is just what we might expect. It requires no deep reasoning to perceive, that it is not a schoolhouse, nor a fund, nor an appropriation, nor a legislative enactment, that makes a good school. Nor will good books do it, valuable as they are. Nor will just speculations on the subject, nor a correct judgment in the minds of a few, or even of the body of the community. All this will be to no purpose; all that we can say, and think, and do, and give, will avail nothing, without good teachers. They will be but so many means, wasted for the want of application. How, then, shall this application be made? Or, in other words, how shall well qualified teachers be obtained?

This brings us, in the third place, to consider the remedy, which Mr Carter proposes.

It may be taken for granted, we suppose, that there is such a deficiency to be supplied. The especial and grand reason for the faults of our schools, is the want of proper qualifications in the teachers. If any one doubts this, let him inquire of our intelligent school committees, who really discharge their duty, and he will find them with one voice, testifying to this deficiency. They accredit the applicants for the situation of instructers, in

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

most cases, not because they are satisfied with them, but because they can get no better.

Now we expect to be reminded, that our colleges are full of young men, who are passing through the course of education, and many of whom will be engaged for a greater or less time in the business of instruction. But it is forgotten in this suggestion, that all this affords no help to the Common Schools. The graduates from our colleges, almost without exception, are employed in private schools; and it is a sufficient evidence, we may remark in passing, of the low estimation into which the systems of free instruction have fallen, that all, or almost all, who are able to afford it, send their children to these schools; and yet how common is it for our educated scholars, however learned and accomplished, to fail of doing anything in the business of instruction, that is at all adequate to their talents and acquisitions.

Nor is this strange. To know is one thing; to teach is another. The distinction is obvious enough; and yet we agree with Mr Carter in thinking, that it has not often been 'practically made.'

'When we are looking for a teacher,' says he, 'we inquire how much he *knows*, not how much he can *communicate;* as if the latter qualification were of no consequence to us. Now it seems to me, that parents and children, to say the least, are as much interested in the latter qualification of their instructer as in the former.

'Though a teacher cannot communicate more knowledge than he possesses; yet he may possess much, and still be able to impart but little. And the knowledge of Sir Isaac Newton could be of but trifling use to a school, while it was locked up safely in the head of a country schoolmaster. So far as the object of a school or of instruction, therefore, is the acquisition of knowledge, novel as the opinion may seem, it does appear to me, that both parents and pupils are even more interested in the part of their teacher's knowledge, which they will be likely to get, than in the part which they certainly cannot get.

'One great object in the education of teachers, which it is so desirable on every account to attain, is, to establish an intelligible language of communication between the instructer and his pupil, and enable the former to open his head and his heart, and infuse into the other some of the thoughts and feelings, which lie hid there. *Instructers and pupils do not understand each other.* They do not speak the same language. They may use the same words;

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

but this can hardly be called the same language, while they attach to them such very different meanings. We must either, by some magic or supernatural power, bring children at once to comprehend all our abstract and difficult terms; or our teachers must unlearn themselves, and come down to the comprehension of children. One of these alternatives is only difficult, while the other is impossible.

'The direct, careful preparation of instructers for the profession of teaching must surmount this difficulty; and I doubt if there be any other way, in which it can be surmounted. When instructers understand their profession; that is, in a word, when they understand the philosophy of the infant mind, what powers are earliest developed, and what studies are best adapted to their developement; then it will be time to lay out and subdivide their work into an energetic system of public instruction. Till this step towards a reform, which is preliminary in its very nature, be taken, every other measure must be adopted in the dark; and, therefore, be liable to fail utterly of its intended result. Houses and funds and books are all, indeed, important; but they are only the means of enabling the minds of the teachers to act upon the minds of the pupils. And they must, inevitably, fail of their happiest effects, till the minds of the teachers have been prepared to act upon those of their pupils to the greatest advantage.

'If, then, the first step towards a reform in our system of popular education be the scientific preparation of teachers for the free schools; our next inquiry becomes, How can we soonest and most perfectly achieve an object on every account so desirable? The ready and obvious answer is, Establish an institution for the very purpose. To my mind, this seems to be the only measure, which will ensure to the public the attainment of the object. It will be called a new project. Be it so. The concession does not prove, that the project is a bad one, or a visionary, or an impracticable one. Our ancestors ventured to do what the world had never done before, in so perfect a manner, when they established the free schools. Let us also do what they have never so well done yet, and establish an institution for the exclusive purpose of preparing instructers for them.' pp. 45, 46.

The claims of such institutions on the patronage of our state governments, we reserve for a separate topic; it is in place here to speak of their intrinsic propriety.

We must begin with saying, that most trite of all things, and yet least of all things understood and felt, that the office of a teacher is important. A thing that is trite, according to the etymology, is a thing worn out, and yet it became trite from its

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

obvious and unquestionable truth; and we are sometimes tempted to think, that those great truths, which are of the most obvious and important character, are precisely the truths, which are least felt, and are worn out. What office under heaven can be more momentous, or more dignified, than that which takes charge of the immortal mind? Who does not feel, that the great Fenelon, when he devoted the powers of his noble and gifted mind to the education of the young duke of Burgundy, was adequately and worthily employed? There is but one higher place in the intellectual scale, and we hesitate not to say, it is that of the parent. The clergyman shall be allowed to 'magnify his office,' and in a proper sense he cannot magnify it too highly. But when he addresses the people, his precept, his direction, is general. He can take no such *minute* care and oversight of the mind and heart, as belong to the parent and teacher. We join these together, for the office of the teacher, so far as the intellect is concerned, is essentially parental. He is guiding minds, which must suffer or enjoy an unknown amount, throughout an unknown extent of time, from his influence; and he, who takes upon himself such a responsibility, and yet feels no anxiety for his qualifications, is fit for nothing, but to sit in the magisterial chair, and hold a ferule in his hand; and then, the subjects on which he operates ought to be literal stocks and stones.

And now the question occurs, Is it too much for a man, who is to discharge the most responsible duty of instructing our youth, to devote a little time to acquiring the necessary qualifications; a little time, we say, to this specific object? If there is no profession nor pursuit in life, which does not demand a *considerable* time to be spent in preparation for it; if a man cannot be a weaver or a blacksmith, if he cannot make wooden tubs, or manufacture cart ropes, without serving years of apprenticeship, shall he venture to mould the habits of the mind, and weave the fabric of intellect, and guide all the subtil machinery of the human soul, not only without an equal, but without *any* previous attention?

'This is the only service,' says Mr Carter, 'in which we venture to employ young, and often, ignorant persons, without some previous instruction in their appropriate duties. We require experience in all those, whom we employ to perform the slightest mechanical labor for us. We would not buy a coat nor a hat of one, who should undertake to make them without a previous apprentice-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ship. Nor would any one have the hardihood to offer to us the result of his first essay in manufacturing either of these articles. We do not even send an old shoe to be mended, except it be to a workman of whose skill we have had ample proof. Yet we commit our children to be educated to those, who know nothing, absolutely nothing, of the complicated and difficult duties assigned to them. Shall we trust the developement of the delicate bodies, the susceptible hearts, and the tender minds of our little children to those who have no knowledge of their nature? Can they, can these rude hands finish the workmanship of the Almighty? No language can express the astonishment, which a moment's reflection on this subject excites in me.' p. 36.

The principle of a division of labor is well understood in the mechanic arts; it applies with double force to the case before us. It *is* applied indeed to several departments of intellectual exertion. There are schools for the education of the clergy, of lawyers, and physicians. Why should there not be schools for teachers of youth? There are special qualifications required for this profession, qualifications as peculiar and specific, as for any other of the learned professions. On this point Mr Carter shall again speak for us. After some remarks on the importance of gymnastic exercises in our schools, a branch of education, which we rejoice to see rising into notice, he proceeds;

'The philosophy of the infant mind must be understood by the instructer, before much progress can be made in the science of education; for a principal branch of the science consists in forming the mind. And the skill of the teacher in this department is chiefly to be seen in his judicious adaptation of means to the developement of the intellectual faculties.'

'The human heart, the philosophy of its passions and its affections must be studied by those who expect to influence those passions and form those affections. This branch of the subject includes the government of children, especially in the earliest stages of their discipline. The success of the teacher here depends upon the good judgment with which he arranges and presents to his pupils the motives that will soonest move them, and most permanently influence their actions. The mistaken or wicked principles of parents and instructers, in this department of education, have no doubt, perverted the dispositions of many hopeful children. If successful experience has been recorded, it should be brought to the assistence of those, who must otherwise act without experience.

'Lastly, the study of the philosophy of language would be essential to the scientific teacher. The term, language, is not here

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

understood to mean a class of words called Greek, or another class of words called Latin, or even that class of words which we call English. It means something more general, and something which can hardly be defined. It embraces all the means we use to excite in the minds of others the ideas, which we have already in our own minds. These, whatever they are, are included in the general definition of language. This is a great desideratum in our systems of education, We do not possess a language by which we can produce *precisely* the idea in a pupil, which we have in our own mind, and which we wish to excite in his. And impatient and precipitate teachers quite [?] often quarrel with their pupils, because they do not arrive at the same conclusions with themselves, when, if they could but look into their minds, they would find, that the ideas with which they begin to reason, or which enter into their processes of reasoning, are altogether different.' pp. 51, 52.

We cannot close this part of our subject, without introducing another extract from the Essays, for the sake of adverting to what we consider to be a very happy feature in the proposed institution. It relates to the connexion in this school between those who are merely pupils, with only the general objects of education before them, and those who propose to become teachers of others.

'After the young candidate for an instructer, therefore, has acquired sufficient knowledge for directing those exercises and teaching those branches, which he wishes to profess, he must then begin his labors under the scrutinizing eyes of one who will note his mistakes of government and faults of instruction, and correct them. The experienced and skilful professor of the science will observe how the mind of the young teacher acts upon that of the learner. He will see how far and how perfectly they understand each other, and which is at fault if they do not understand each other at all. If the more inexperienced teacher should attempt to force upon the mind of a child an idea or a process of reasoning, for which it was not in a proper state, he would be checked, at once, and told of his fault; and thus, perhaps, the pupil would be spared a disgust for a particular study or an aversion to all study. As our earliest experience would in this manner be under the direction of those wiser than ourselves, it would the more easily be classed under general principles for our direction afterwards.' p. 54.

For a more full exhibition of the plan of this Institution, we must refer our readers to the pamphlet itself. We are happy to perceive, that Mr Carter has it in view to establish such a

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

seminary, even though he should be left to undertake it on his own private responsibility. But we trust that so good a cause will not be suffered to impose its whole burden on individual risk and effort. We do most respectfully, but most earnestly, commend it to the patronage of the Government of Massachusetts. We understand that the attention of the State of New York is likely to be drawn to the same subject. And writing, as we do, for our patrons in every State in the Union, we beg leave, to propose this as a matter for general consideration. Our remarks will necessarily have as much application to one part of the country as another.

It has always been the policy of free governments to foster education. This has been constantly proclaimed, as eminently the policy of our own. And something we have done. We have endowed colleges. But these institutions, invaluable as they are, and absolutely indispensable to the education of men for civil offices, and for the learned professions, have yet but an indirect influence upon the mass of our population. It is possible, we know, for the most learned and splendidly endowed universities to exist in the midst of a people ignorant and degraded. We shall not be suspected of saying anything against colleges and universities. Let them be cherished, and watched over, ay, and searched into, and let the tone of education in them be raised to the highest point. But if it is laudable to do so much to elevate the standard of liberal scholarship, it would seem to commend itself to the feelings of a free people, as reasonable, that something should be done to raise the character of our common schools. An institution for the education of teachers, to be employed in these schools, would be emphatically the people's institution. Such a seminary would be most consonant with the genius of our political condition.

Besides, some of our State governments yield their patronage to free schools, and a most bountiful patronage. They put it in the power of a majority in the several townships to vote the appropriation of monies to any extent, and to enforce the collection of taxes thus assessed. And the majority is safely entrusted with its power, to give or withhold according to its pleasure, because it is impelled by the desire of having schools on the one hand, and on the other, held in check by the reluctance to tax itself. So that there seldom fails to be an appropriation in every township, though not an extravagant one. And yet, although these appropriations are not extravagant, they rise in the aggre-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

gate to a great amount. The country is really at a vast expense of means for the support of schools, and it is at this expense by direction of the government, just as much as if it were paid at once out of the public treasury. It may, therefore, fairly be put to the common sense and prudence of our legislatures, whether they will suffer these means, thus accumulated, to be wasted, or to fail of their full and proper effect? Shall we build school houses, and purchase books, and collect large sums of money, and stop here, and leave undone the very thing that is to give efficacy to all the rest? Shall we rear a system of machinery, with great labor and care, without attention to the very *power*, by which it is to work with energy and effect? For we aver, and repeat, that the intelligence of the teachers is the power, the vital principle, the main spring in our school establishments.

And this intelligence, moreover, cannot be had without aid from the government. This is a very material point, and it may easily be made a clear one. The requisite intelligence, it is manifest, is yet to be created. It does not exist; or it exists only in those, who can afford to be idle, or are more profitably employed, and will yield us no aid in this business. How then can it be created? How shall young men be induced to come forward and prepare themselves for the business of teaching? We answer, only by a helping hand being stretched out to them. They cannot afford to be at the whole expense of the undertaking; the compensation offered in our common schools will not warrant it. The teachers of these schools in general are, during a portion of the year, otherwise engaged. They cannot leave their employments, lose their time, and pay all their expenses at the proposed Institution besides. They will do something; but they cannot do every thing. They have an ambition, many of them, to learn. Some of them, doubtless, are sensible of their incapacity. Some of them, if properly aided, will go to a seminary opened for their benefit. And when they return, they will show at once, in one winter or summer, the great advantages of such a training. Others will follow them. The standard of qualifications for teaching will be raised. The character of the schools will be raised. The character of the community will as certainly be raised; and the blessing of such an institution will be incalculable. It will be 'the blessing of many generations.'

It is the duty, it is the especial province, and it is the glory of a

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

truly *republican*, which ought to be a truly parental government, to watch over the youth and children, committed to its charge. No one can fail to be struck with the declaration, concerning Lycurgus, that '*he resolved the whole business of legislation into the bringing up of youth.*'

We are tempted to plead the *rights* of this portion of our population; for rights they have, though in our republican wisdom or pride, we seem to imagine, that these belong only to 'all males over twentyone years of age.' We confess, that we feel some pity for the little communities, that are gathered in our schools, whose parts are assigned them, often with as little consideration, as if they were the machinery of a cotton factory, shut up to buzz, and chafe, and wear away the appointed hours, but whose restlessness and chafing turn to far less account. We cannot but feel some sympathy with this inexpressible reluctance of many a child to go to school, and are but half indignant enough at the naughty truant. We suppose that he makes as fair a calculation as many of his seniors, and judges, that it is better to receive a chastisement at home in the evening, than to suffer torture all day at school.

Do we overrate the evils, which are regularly and systematically inflicted on the mass of the rising generation? We are not again going over the ground, to which this question would lead us. But we confidently appeal to all, who know anything about it. We are for ourselves satisfied, that where all extraneous matters of interest are left out of sight, where the simple question is between loving the school for its own sake, or not loving it, the entire majority of children in our common schools, under twelve or fourteen years of age, is decidedly averse to the discipline of learning. And we cannot conceive of a more miserable system of mismanagement than that, which brings about such a result. We never saw one of these reluctant pupils, not the dullest of them, whose eye would not kindle, and whose whole countenance would not brighten with joy, if you would clearly present to him one new and intelligible idea. And it is because their *reasoning* nature is overlooked, and they are set to mumble over the unmeaning sounds of an unintelligible lesson, it is for this reason, that the very idea of learning with many has become odious, and every familiar word of the school room is habitually associated with everything dull and wearisome. We would not willingly be thought extravagant; but we cannot consent to be judged by those, whom our own

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

poor reflections have led to their first thoughts of this interesting subject.

We are not fully satisfied, we confess, with the usual manner in which *any* body of human beings has been treated, or with the improvement and happiness to which any community has attained. From the spirit of this age, and the advantages of this country combined, we are looking for better results, than have yet appeared. Mr Owen will not accomplish them for us, nor will any enthusiast, however much more generous and philanthropic, or less vain and shortsighted. No schemer nor empiric will bring forward the great destiny which is before us, but it will be slowly and gradually wrought out, by principles already in operation. It will be wrought out by the consenting inquiries, and purposes, and endeavors of the whole people; but the grand lever, which is to raise up the mighty mass of this community, is *education*. We forget not the power of a free press, so often denominated the palladium our liberties, we forget not our excellent form of government, we forget not the institutions of religion, but all these are to take their character from the intelligence of the people. The empire of these States must rise or fall with the mind. The *schools* hold, in embryo, the future communities of this land. The *schools* are the pillars of the republic. To these, let the strong arm of the government be stretched out. Over these, let the wisdom of our legislatures watch. Let not the needful scrutiny and support be withheld, lest their very foundations silently moulder away, and the fabric of empire sink in their ruins.

ART XI.—*Notes on Political Economy.* By J. N. CARDOZO. 1826. 8vo. pp. 125. Charleston.

THE short treatise, to which the above unassuming title is given, was written by a gentleman, who has evidently made himself familiar with the doctrines of what is called the new school of Political Economy. His object is to examine a few of those doctrines, show their consequences, and trace out the fallacy of the argument on which they are founded. For this reason, if for no other, it will be generally sought for by the true lovers of

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

the science. It is desirable, that some writer of talents should undertake the task, on a far more extended scale than Mr Cardozo has done; give us a brief outline of the peculiarities in the new school; contrast them, where it is possible, with those of the old; state succinctly the arguments urged on both sides of the question; and make such reflections on the growth of this branch of knowledge, as must naturally be suggested by the inquiry. Such an undertaking would demand a good deal of research, examination, thought; something more, in short, to be well executed, than a modest attempt at 'Notes.'

Mr Cardozo does not approach the most important questions; and with many of the conclusions at which he arrives, we cannot agree, although much interested in the discussion, by which he was led to them. In our own country, inquiries upon the various branches of political economy are of far more importance, than in many others, because every citizen here may be called upon to serve as a legislator; and to think of assuming the responsibility of that high station, without some examination of the basis on which it ought to rest, or some study of the principles, by which alone it can be made to act beneficially, or not injuriously, on the general interests of society, must be, to say the least, presumptuous. The knowledge of this science is, indeed, not commonly deemed of such utility; and, what is remarkable, it seldom forms any part of the popular or recommendatory qualifications of the candidate for high political office. For these reasons and others, there ought to be some arrangement for making it more universally a branch of common education; and the writer renders a good service, who calls public attention to any of the controversies connected with it, in a condensed form, like the one before us.

There are some doctrines among the late writers on the subject particularly, which, though they have been thoroughly refuted, and for that reason probably are passed unnoticed by Mr Cardozo, may have a tendency so injurious, that they cannot be too much pressed upon our examination, and shown to be utterly false. The possibility, that machinery may be too far improved; that the saving of labor may thus become excessive; that, in consequence of it, honest industry may be thrown out of employment, and condemned to suffer for the benefit of the rich capitalist, are among the number of them. And to teach principles, which involve these doctrines, as has been done by some very able writers, is to call science in aid of popular pre-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

judice. Mr Cardozo does not think it necessary to reexamine them. His inquiries are, generally, into subjects more apart from common observation, and therefore less interesting, and probably less important, than those we have mentioned. They are subjects, however, which have called forth the attention of the most acute and intelligent writers.

One of the principal objects of the author's Notes (and, on reading the introduction to them, we thought it was to be almost their sole object) is to refute Ricardo's Theory of Rents, which Mr Cardozo thinks is full of errors, and must lead to very unreasonable or absurd results. We cannot entirely agree with the objections here raised against that distinguished writer, although he has certainly made some mistakes, in his chapter on this subject. He ascribes the rise of raw produce, and of rents, to the necessity of resorting to inferior soils, and the increased difficulty of production. 'When land of an inferior quality,' says Ricardo, 'is taken into cultivation, the exchangeable value of raw produce will rise, because more labor is required to produce it.' 'The reason why raw produce rises in comparative value, is because more labor is employed in the production of the best portion obtained.' 'When, in the progress of society, land of the second degree of fertility is taken into cultivation, rent immediately *commences* on that of the first quality, and the amount of that rent will depend on the difference in the quality of these two portions of land.' There is a slight inaccuracy in in all these statements. Raw produce would rise, and rents would also rise, even if the less fertile lands were prevented in any way from being brought under cultivation. In fact, the cultivation of these less fertile lands will, in some measure, keep the price of rents and produce down, because they furnish a partial supply, and thus make the demand less intense, than otherwise it must become in consequence of the greater scarcity. Suppose a country of very limited extent, where the lands, though unequal, were all rich, and highly cultivated, and where none of an inferior quality could be brought forward. Suppose, that on the increase of population, produce should rise and become very high, so high, that the profits of capital invested in agriculture would be much greater, than of that invested in commerce, or manufacture, or other employments; it is evident, that these lands must pay rent, and the rent will be just so much, as to reduce the profits of capital invested in agriculture to a level with the profits of that invested in any other way. Raw produce first

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

rises in price. Then rents will rise, because the returns of capital invested in agriculture are greater, than if invested elsewhere, and the landlords will make the capitalists pay for this advantage. It is not till the third or last step, and as a consequence of the two former, that new and less fertile lands are cultivated, or that new capital is employed upon the old lands with a greater return of profits. Mr Ricardo, however, goes upon the idea, that rents will not rise till new lands are actually taken into cultivation, or till a further amount of capital has been actually employed upon the old lands, and with a greater return of profits. This is clearly a mistake.

Mr Ricardo, likewise, does not always point out clearly the true objects of his inquiry. In a treatise on this subject, three topics ought to be kept entirely separate; first, The nature of rent, or what it is; secondly, The origin of rent, or what first produced it; and, thirdly, The measure of rent, or the proper rule for estimating its just amount. Mr Ricardo must have seen these clearly enough; but he makes no such classification, and evidently confounds them throughout the whole of his inquiry. Will not this consideration help to explain away the following remarks of our author?

'The rent of land has been variously defined by Mr Ricardo in different parts of his work on the Principles of Political Economy and Taxation, It is defined, first, to be "that portion of the produce of the earth, which is paid to the landlord for the use of the original and indestructible powers of the soil." Rent, according to this definition, is made to depend on *natural* fertility. But the definition given of rent by Mr Malthus, to wit, that "excess of price above the costs of production at which raw produce sells in the market," is sanctioned by Mr Ricardo. This definition is, however, essentially different from the other, and confounds that rent, "which is paid for the use of the original and indestructible powers of the soil," with that paid in consequence of the advance in the price of raw produce from restrictions on the trade in corn, and the monopoly which in some countries is connected with the possession of land.

'The *origin* of rent is described in the following manner by Mr Ricardo. "It is then only because land is of different qualities, with respect to its productive powers, and because in the progress of population, land, of an inferior quality, or less advantageously situated, is called into cultivation, that rent is *ever* paid for the use of it." Rent is accounted for in this description from *relative* fertility.' pp. 19, 20.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

But our author cannot escape from the general reasonings and conclusions of Ricardo, in this ingenious theory, although he makes a great effort to do it; and we are not surprised that he has failed, for results from it can be traced very different from those, which he seems to anticipate. The following is a brief outline of the theory. On the first settlement of a new country, where rich lands are in abundance, no rent is paid, because all may enjoy them freely, and without making compensation. But in a short period, the produce of these will not be sufficient to furnish the necessary supply. Population has increased; the food of the laborer, and produce generally, are in greater demand. They rise in price; new and less fertile lands must be taken into cultivation; thus rent is paid on the best, but not on those of the inferior quality, which are occupied; for by the supposition these are so plenty, that all may use them without remuneration. It cannot be long, however, before the produce of these also will be insufficient to meet the full demand. Lands of the third quality are called for; then again rents rise on the first, and are paid on the second, but not on the last, on account of their plenty; and so the process goes on continually, as long as the country continues to advance in wealth. Mr Ricardo briefly states his views on the subject thus.

'If all land had the same properties, if it were boundless in quantity, and uniform in quality, no charge could be made for its use, unless where it possessed peculiar advantages of situation. It is only then because land is of different qualities, with respect to its productive powers, and because in the progress of population, land of an inferior quality, or less advantageously situated, is called into cultivation, that rent is ever paid for the use of it. When, in the progress of society, land of the second degree of fertility is taken into cultivation, rent immediately commences on that of the first quality, and the amount of that rent will depend on the difference in the quality of these two portions of land.'
Ricardo, pp. 38, 39.

The inferences to be drawn from reasoning on the above theory of Mr Ricardo are; that rents make no part of the price of produce, because the price is determined by the labor bestowed upon the lands last taken into cultivation, which, by the supposition, can afford no rent; and that, by the advance of rents, landlords, as he says, are doubly benefited; they are benefited in the amount, and in the exchangeable value of what they receive. Mr Cardozo says, this last idea is inconceivable.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

We know not why. The supply must have increased; the demand must also have increased in a still greater proportion. From the first cause, therefore, the landlord will receive a larger share of the produce for his rent, and from the second cause, this produce will be of a greater price or value; that is, the same portion of it will be worth more in the market, than it was before.

'But we would ask,' says our author, 'what is to entitle the landlord to an increased share of the whole produce, if an increase of the whole has been effected by the skill and capital of the cultivators? If the landlord has furnished any of the capital by which this increase has been obtained, his share will be in proportion to his investment; if he gets a greater share, it will be a transfer of a portion of that to which the farmers are entitled from their capital and skill. As extended cultivation, therefore, if it has been effected by cultivators without any aid from landlords, is the result of their own improvements, the whole of the increased produce arising from this extension of cultivation, is their exclusive property. There can, therefore, of right, be no increase of rent from the increased quantity of produce.' pp. 21, 22.

Might the author not as well ask, what *right* has the heir to the property, which he inherits? A merchant or manufacturer chances to have a great stock of goods on hand, which suddenly rise in price; would it be fair to interrogate him about his being *entitled* to the increased value? We are driven back to the original institution of property to answer such questions as these. The landlord must have run some risk in the investment of his capital. Perhaps it will be a most unproductive one; many circumstances may occur, as we shall presently see, which will transfer the rise of rents into other hands, or make it so slow in his hands, that he could have placed his capital more profitably in any other employment. If he be successful, we surely ought not to ask him about his right and title to his good fortune.

All lands, which pay rent, have something more or less of the nature of monopoly. Different situations, different degrees of fertility, remoteness from the market, or nearness to it, these, and other circumstances, render it impossible for them to come into any competition with each other on equal terms. This fact is most remarkable in great commercial places, where the holders of convenient stands for business have greatly the advantage

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

over those in other situations, and they are obliged to pay for it in the form of rent. The same is true, likewise, though less obviously so, of cultivated lands remote or near, and of various degrees of fertility or improvement. The equalizing principle of rent, so clearly explained by Mr Ricardo, will place all capitalists and tenants, who are in the occupancy of spots thus more or less favorable, upon nearly the same level, and enable them to come into fair competition with each other in their employments, which otherwise would be impossible. We can easily thus ascertain what will be the true measure of rents. Those of the favorable stands for business, in a large and populous city, cannot be estimated with any exactness, because they must depend on the greater profits, which those places will throw into the hands of the tenants, who occupy them. But the fair rents of cultivated lands may be very clearly ascertained. The agriculturist must retain enough of the produce to pay himself for the wages, which he has employed or bestowed upon them, and enough likewise for a reasonable return of profit upon the capital invested by him; all the residue, whether it be more or less, ought to go to the landlord for rent, or the tenant will have an undue advantage over those in similar situations with himself, and perhaps, too, over capitalists generally. The rent of a particular piece of cultivated land, is, in short, the difference between the amount of its produce, and the amount of produce from an equal quantity of the poorest lands, which can however be profitably cultivated. These remarks will show, that rent can in no case be assimilated, as Mr Cardozo thinks, to the interest on a loan of capital. Lands rented are essentially different from capital let, because the former are always unequal, while the same amount of the latter must be always equal. It is not till after the payment of rent, that any similarity exists between them.

But Mr Cardozo thinks, if this celebrated theory be true, rents will so encroach on wages and profits, that the accumulation of capital will be stopped, and population receive a fatal check at no distant period of time. And certainly the exact mathematical calculation, in which Mr Ricardo expresses his ideas on this subject, will lead many readers to the same erroneous conclusion. Mathematics are as deceptive in moral reasonings, as probabilities are in mathematics. The shades of difference between different kinds of land are faint, almost imperceptible, and not to be marked by numbers. Fluxional quantities

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

might more justly illustrate them, than the arithmetical progression, which Mr Ricardo uses. Let it be understood, however, that he uses it merely as an illustration of his principle. At any rate, the rise on the rents of cultivated lands is exceedingly slow. Many circumstances will occur to retard or change it. The effects of science in improving the art of cultivating lands, the improvement in the tools and machinery of agriculture, and several other causes, not at all inconsistent with this theory, as our author seems to think they are, will tend to keep down the price of produce and of rents longer than this simple statement of Mr Ricardo would lead one to anticipate. A farm will pass through several hands without any sensible addition to its value. Even when new lands are necessarily taken into cultivation, though they seem of an inferior quality, the great expense is often in the first outlay, in clearing, reducing, and bringing them to a state of improvement suitable for being occupied, and then perhaps they may be among the most fertile and productive. A new market may be thrown open in the vicinity. A near manufactory may raise its value. Many other circumstances may also occur, which will create a full demand for its produce, and thus raise its rent, or depress the rent of those, which were formerly thought the richest and most profitable. There can be little danger, that the increase of rent, advancing according to the principles of Mr Ricardo's theory, rightly understood, ever can become in any degree excessive.

From these reflections may also be deduced an answer to another objection of our author, against this theory of rents, namely, that it makes agriculture, including the landlord's advantages, the most profitable of all employments. Nothing can be more erroneous than this idea. It goes upon the supposition, that by the theory the purchaser of land takes no risk in thus investing his capital, that his profits are rapid and sure, not liable to fluctuation, change, or successful competition from the cultivators of new soils; none of which inferences are fairly deducible from the reasoning of Mr Ricardo, if they be carefully examined. Every body has heard of most unprofitable agricultural speculations. But this will not weaken the general conclusions in the theory of rents, for the reasons before given. Capital naturally seeks the most advantageous employment. When, from the competition of rival adventurers, the profits of stock shall have become small and doubtful, in commerce, manufacture, and other departments of industry, we may expect more to arise

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

from agriculture than at present; and this will probably be the case at no very distant period. It is a very common mistake among writers on this subject to suppose, that the rise of produce is the first and sole cause of the fall of profits. These would fall, however, for a variety of reasons, although produce remained unchanged.

In our remarks thus far, we have spoken of the rise in the price of produce. It may be, however, only a fall in the price of every other article; which amounts to precisely the same thing. All rise is comparative. Commodities rise merely because they will command more. There may be, in consequence of improvements in agriculture, a much greater supply of produce even in proportion to the demand than formerly; but the supply of other commodities, with which that produce is exchanged, and which measure its value, may be in still greater proportion; it will therefore command a larger portion of those, and for this reason, and this reason alone, it seems to rise in price. Smith speaks of the stationary nature of corn rents. It is difficult to tell, however, whether they are in fact stationary. For the reasons we have given they may have risen or have fallen materially. If tried by the labor which they command, and which is the best measure of value through long periods of time, they cannot have varied much. But there is some uncertainty about this, because the condition of the laborer, his food, habits, conveniences, and expectations are subject to such essential changes.

We look upon the rise of rent, which our author seems so much to dread, as the decisive proof, that a country is advancing rapidly in opulence. Observe any great commercial place, where there is a press of business and a crowd of population, and where there are vast amounts of capital accumulated. These are the causes of the high price of rents there, and they will not begin to fall until profits fall, business ceases to be flourishing, and the accumulation of wealth is checked. The same is observable, for similar reasons, of lands in every situation. It is true that while the country is still advancing, rents may in some places be stationary and even fall, but it is on account of their greater rise in other portions of it. Mr Cardozo thinks, too, that they are made unnaturally high, by the laws which encumber the titles to real estates, and make the transfer of them difficult and unsafe. We do not agree with him on this point. These restrictions have an opposite tendency, and make the

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

price of rents in some cases improperly low, and more in danger of that extreme than of the other. If the law could free lands from embarrassing questions about title, and render the transfer of them as simple and easy, as the transfer of personal property, they would be likely to fall into the hands of those, who could most profitably use them, or turn them to the best account in the hands of others. The landlord never can find it for his interest to charge his tenant too much, because he will make the tenant's business unprofitable, and thus ultimately reduce his own rents. He ought not to charge the tenant too little, because this is giving him an unfair and useless advantage over others in similar situations. It is in the nice calculation of asking of the tenant just so much, and no more than he can profitably afford to pay, that the true secret of assessing rent lies. Now who can make this nice and just calculation most advantageously to themselves, great landlords, who are obliged to keep possession of their estates whether they like it or not, or those who purchase in order to vest their capital productively, and who study to employ it so as to receive the greatest possible returns from it? There would, it is true, be a less number of large farm rents in the country, than before the restrictions were taken off, but the sum of the smaller ones must amount to vastly more than those; and, besides, they would be more accurately looked after and carefully paid.

The inferences deducible from this theory of rents seem to us very important. One of them is, that rents affect neither the wages of labor nor the profits of stock, and enter not into prices. We do not think this appears very clearly in Mr Ricardo's chapter on the subject, though it evidently must follow from his reasonings; and it was the object of our remarks upon some of his inaccuracies, to make it more plain. Produce, we have seen, first rises in price. Then, and not till then, do rents rise. It is evident, therefore, that the former cannot be enhanced by the latter, since it must take place before rents can be changed or affected. But it is often believed that rents do in reality make the heaviest part of prices. Landlords are sometimes represented as growing rich, and living idly and luxuriously by means of taxes indirectly levied upon the wages of the laborer, or upon the capital, which honest industry or enterprise has accumulated. But if they were to give up to their tenants all their rents, it could have no effect in reducing the prices of produce, because it would neither increase the supply nor diminish

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

the demand. There would be the same quantity in the market, the same number of sellers, the same number of consumers. The only result of such an injudicious act of generosity on the part of landlords would be, to introduce the greatest inequality among capitalists, and into employments of all sorts, and thus lead to a state of confusion and disorder such as we cannot easily describe. It appears more clearly, too, by this theory, that, in the natural course of things, that class of people, who are the most uniformly interested in their country's welfare, are sure, without peculiar efforts of their own to advance in opulence, as their country advances in opulence, and nearly in the same proportion. The prosperity of the landholder is justly represented by Smith as always in unison with the general prosperity of society. It is difficult to conceive of any great public or private improvement, which will not directly or indirectly benefit him. His success depends entirely upon the success of every class of people around him; while their interests, though never at variance with his, are frequently at variance with each other, and not unfrequently so with those of a great majority of the community to which they belong. He holds, too, an indissoluble interest; but citizens in other situations, merchants, or capitalists, who find that profits have fallen, because competition has been widely extended, may transfer themselves and their property to other places, where they expect to reap greater advantage. It is not without a very good reason, that the old English law, which has come to us, looks with an eye of peculiar favor on freeholders and yeomen.

In these remarks on rents, we have observed no difference between those of cultivated or farm lands, and those of lands in places crowded with population; and writers on the subject generally seem to pass it by unnoticed. It was not necessary for us to point to this distinction. The character of monopoly belongs more plainly and strongly, though not more justly, to the latter than to the former. But the same principles belong to both, and the same general reasoning, which we have applied to the one, will, with a slight difference of phraseology, be found equally applicable to the other.

Mr Cardozo is much more successful in some other strictures on Ricardo, and exposes one error, in particular, which has been copied, and implicitly acquiesced in, by Mr Malthus, and which we are now surprised could have so long remained unnoticed. That ingenious writer, in his great work on the Princi-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ples of Political Economy and Taxation, employs a whole chapter in drawing distinctions between the riches and the values of a country, and seems to think that the former may be indefinitely changed, increased, or diminished, while the amount of the latter remains unaltered. This is clearly an error. The following passage from Mr Ricardo contains, in brief, the argument by which that position is maintained.

'If an improved piece of machinery should enable us to make two pair of stockings, instead of one, without additional labor, double the quantity would be given in exchange for a yard of cloth. If a similar improvement be made in the manufacture of cloth, stockings and cloth will exchange in the same proportions as before, but they will both have fallen in value; for in exchanging them for hats, for gold, or other commodities in general, twice the former quantity must be given. Extend the improvement to the production of gold, and every other commodity; and they will all regain their former proportions. *There will be double the quantity of commodities annually produced in the country, and therefore the wealth of the country will be doubled, but this wealth will not have increased in value.*' *Ricardo*, p. 288.

It is very easy to see through the fallacy of this reasoning. The exchangeable value of the article, the production of which is thus made more easy, must, it is certain, be diminished; that is, the same quantity of it will not command the same quantity of other articles in the market, that it had been used to do before. Perhaps we might go farther, and admit that the exchangeable value of the whole amount of the article, so cheapened in price, has been diminished, though this is hardly possible. Admit it, however, for the sake of the argument. In the mean time, while the exchangeable value of this cheapened article is thus diminished, the exchangeable value of every other article, when compared with it, must be in the same proportion increased. Observe the remark in the last period of our last extract. Our inference from it would be, that the sum total of the exchangeable values was doubled; the whole of every commodity will command just double the quantity of every other commodity that it formerly would. In these reasonings both Mr Ricardo and ourselves have reference merely to the internal exchanges, which may take place in the same country, and to the exclusion of those arising from foreign commerce. Our author supposes him to have been led into the above mistake, by confounding value with price. But this explanation will not do, because the *real* price of an article must be the same as its exchangeable value. And we

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

think it impossible that Mr Ricardo can have confounded it with the *nominal*, or money price, since in another part of his work he gives us his reasons very fully, for estimating the value of a commodity by the amount of labor necessary to be expended in its production. This, in fact, will serve as an explanation of the whole difficulty. The values he supposes to remain the same, because they have cost no more labor. It is an error of reasoning, and not merely of a use of words, with which we are obliged to charge Mr Ricardo.

The distinction between wealth, or riches, and value seems to us very simple; yet it has been the ground of much discussion, and led to many mistakes. Take, for example, the following remarks, which are intended for a definition of the term *wealth*, by Mr J. B. Say, the most popular, and perhaps the most able writer on political economy, since the time of Smith.

'If we take the pains to inquire, what that is, which mankind in a social state of existence denominate wealth, we shall find the term employed to designate an indefinite quantity of objects bearing inherent value, as of land, of metal, of coin, of grain, of stuffs, of commodities of every description. When they further extend its signification to landed securities, bills, notes of hand, and the like, it is evidently because they contain obligations to deliver things possessed of inherent value. In point of fact, wealth can only exist where there are things possessed of real and intrinsic value. *Wealth is proportionate to the quantum of that value; great, when the aggregate of component value is great; small, when that aggregate is small.*' *Say*, p. 1.

Even the most superficial reader will see this to be an error. The intrinsic value of some things, of water, for instance, may be very great, though they are seldom to be ranked among articles of wealth, and many, which are so ranked, and highly, have in them little intrinsic value. The wealth, too, contained in some commodities, may continually vary, either increase or diminish, while their intrinsic value remains unchanged. It appears to us, that under the term *wealth* we class together those objects only, which have exchangeable value, whether they are useful or not, and that their wealth is just in proportion to this exchangeable value, without reference to their utility or to any other inherent quality whatever. If exchangeable value be given to the most common things, they become articles of wealth; if it be subtracted from even the richest, they cease to be so esteemed. A remarkable proof of this occurs in the example just cited, of

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

water, which in some places, in cases of great scarcity, has had a high exchangeable value, and then the possession of large quantities of it may have been wealth, but it is never thought such in common cases, because from its plenty it has no exchangeable value. It is said, however, that we are not to apply the term to notes, paper money, securities, &c. And why not? The owner of a warehouse full of raw produce, or of a chest of massive gold, or of coffers of metallic money, will find them of little service to him beyond their exchangeable value; and if the holder of a bank note, or bill of exchange, finds it possessed of the same extensive power, we know not why he may not give it as high a title. Let it be observed, that we are now insisting on what we take to be the common use of language. Perhaps it might have been more judiciously appropriated at first. But we have no right to limit it to suit our own ideas on the subject; and we cannot doubt that it is commonly, and, indeed, universally used, as we have explained it.

We have room to touch slightly upon one other theme suggested by our author, in the discussion of which he seems to have fallen into a singular mistake.

He represents a paper currency in all its forms, and with every convenient limit and restriction, as one of the greatest causes of national decline, wherever it is established. '*We find that nations become more thriftless in proportion as they depart from the use of a medium of circulation possessed of intrinsic value.*' That the use of a paper currency has been grossly abused, perverted to the purposes of fraud, made the instrument of bankruptcy, ruin, and distress to thousands, and that it ought, therefore, to be put under more severe legislative restrictions, than it has hitherto been, we presume no one acquainted with the history of it will deny. But the idea of abolishing it entirely is new to us. We know not indeed how this could be effected, whatever might be the expediency of such a measure. If it were possible to suppose a country, where it had never been particularly needed, and where the channel of circulation had always been conveniently filled with gold and silver coins, the holders of large portions of these might still find, or think it profitable to send them abroad; and then the deficiency would be felt at once. A system of credits must be established or extended throughout the community. It will, however, be very imperfect at first, because the facility of transfer is not understood, or not reduced to practice; the creditor, who has some

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

doubt about the ability of his debtor to pay, cannot easily dispose of the risk, while those to whom he is indebted, may feel the same doubts of him, have the same difficulty of transfer, and be also in their turn exposed to the same troubles in their transactions with others.

It is in this imperfect state of credit, and in order to relieve the embarrassments arising from it, that banks, or something in the nature of banking institutions, are introduced. They assume the responsibility of the debtor; they relieve the creditor of his anxiety and doubt; they enable him to divide into small portions, and transfer some of his risk to those with whom he deals, and so the system is carried among every class of people, as far as commerce of any kind extends. It is all an ingenious piece of machinery for establishing, dividing, regulating, and transferring credits, as substitutes in the place of money; for the holder of a bank note is a mere creditor of the bank to that amount. Now it is difficult to tell at what point Mr Cardozo would stop the progress of the natural course of things we have described. Would he prohibit the exportation of specie? Would he check credit, or the transfer of credit, or the evidence of this transfer, by paper or scrip? Would he order that no class of people in the community, however respectable and wealthy, should assume, for honest purposes, the debtor's responsibility, or the creditor's risk, although all the interested parties were desirous of their doing it? Every one of these measures must be taken, before a paper currency can be effectually prevented. But we know not how a government can take either of them, without such a gross infraction of private right, or such an improper interference with the fair bargains of individuals, as no free people of intelligence will voluntarily submit to. It has been thought by some very able writers, that the minute subdivision of these credits, or the issue of small notes by banks, ought to be prevented. We have our doubts about this however. In our own country we have experienced none of the inconveniences, which have been ascribed to them by the foreign journals.

It is now universally allowed, that a paper currency cannot be safe, unless it be convertible, at the pleasure of the holder, into gold and silver, either in the shape of coin or of bullion. And with this qualification it may be looked upon as decidedly the most important modern invention in the accumulation of wealth. It renders exchanges incomparably more rapid and easy. The wheels of commerce are rid of a superfluous load. Tedious,

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

laborious processes in business are dispensed with. In short every step of the progress, from the first production of commodities to their ultimate distribution, is wonderfully facilitated; and if, according to the ingenious speculations of a late writer on the subject, the quantity, or amount of the circulating medium must be in an inverse proportion to the rapidity with which it moves, and effects exchanges, a far greater sum in coins will be necessary for the purpose than in paper money. This is a substitute, too, of the cheapest for the most expensive material. A large portion of the supply of the precious metals is rendered superfluous, and the wear, tear, waste, and unavoidable losses upon those in use are in a great measure saved. Were it necessary to fill up the circulating medium wholly with them, as our author, together with many others, seems to think, so much capital must be withdrawn from profitable employments, and suffered to remain unproductive, and upon the decline. To procure it at the first, and to keep it good continually, must be an immense tax, though an indirect one, upon the whole community; and its effects will be visible upon their wealth. Their real profits of stock will be less; their real wages of labor less, their real rents of land less; and such a people cannot bring their commodities to market on equal terms with those who are free from that unreasonable tax, and whose circulating medium is cheaper and better. In the natural course of things nations tend to throw off the incumbrance, and hitherto their governments generally have encouraged them in it. We believe they will still continue to do it, notwithstanding the popular clamor we often hear against paper money.

The great public evil, which writers on political economy have feared from banks, is the over issue of their notes, by which they say the value of money may be indefinitely reduced, and the value of all other commodities of course in the same proportion raised. But there is a natural limit to this not generally understood, which must check it at an early stage in its progress, if not entirely prevent it. That limit is the cost and the exchangeable value of the precious metals. A coin is worth no more than the bill, which promises to pay it, for by the supposition the one is convertible into the other at the pleasure of the holder. Whatever amount therefore of paper currency is pressed into circulation, as long as this convertibility remains, the value of it will be regulated by the labor and expense necessary for procuring gold and silver from the mines, and passing them

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

through the mint. It can never continue for any length of time materially below this. If there should be such an excessive quantity of it issued as to raise the price of all other commodities, bullion, as a commodity, would rise also, the coins be melted down in order to form it, drafts made upon the bank to procure them for that purpose, and thus the over issue will be immediately checked, and the amount of the currency lessened both by the return to the bank of its notes in exchange for specie, and by an absolute diminution in the number of coins. The consequence will be, that prices will everywhere be brought down to their proper level. It has been lately said, that Adam Smith had wrong or confused ideas on currency; that the channel of the circulating medium can nowhere overflow nor be perfectly full; that it will easily receive and dispose of any amount of money, which may be thrown into it, however valuable it may be; and that the only effect of a great sudden increase or diminution of it, is to diminish or increase in just the same proportion the prices of all other articles in the country. And in support of this, it is urged, that, on the discovery of the mines in America, the different nations of Europe absorbed into their circulation a much larger portion of gold and silver than had been found sufficient for their purposes before.

These statements may lead to very erroneous conclusions. The amount in the *quantity* of the circulating medium we allow may be almost indefinitely enlarged, and all easily appropriated and used. But the amount in its whole *value* must remain nearly the same, and can be increased only with the growing wealth of the country. Its traffic and exchanges will absorb only a certain amount of value. It was the depreciation of this, we believe, which, on the discovery of the American mines, made a larger portion of gold and silver necessary for European commerce. It was merely a greater *quantity* of these, and not a greater amount of wealth, which was poured into the channels of circulation. If these remarks be true, an unnecessary number of bank notes of undiminished value cannot be kept abroad to serve the purposes of money. But while they are exchangeable for coins, their value never will be diminished. We have no great or lasting evil to apprehend, therefore, from an over issue of such notes, nor from the injurious effects on prices which it is said to produce.

If there are more notes issued from the banks than the exchanges of the country require, and thus the value of money is

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

lowered, and that of other things raised, yet not enough to lead to the melting of the coins, the evil will be remedied in other ways. A portion of the gold and silver will go abroad, and seek in foreign parts that profitable employment, which it cannot find at home. This will have a direct effect in lessening the sum in circulation, and an indirect effect also in doing it by limiting the issues of the banks. The high price of goods at home, too, may lead to the importation of goods that are cheaper, and the competition arising from these, together with the exportation of specie for various reasons, will all tend to bring about the same results; namely, to raise again the value of money, reduce that of commodities in general, and keep the circulating medium on its proper level. It is true, that banks have been often disposed thus to over issue; but, as Smith says, they are always much the greatest, if not the only sufferers by it, because they are obliged to have on hand a far greater amount of capital in proportion, and the returns of their notes to them in demand for specie, will be so rapid, that they are called upon at short intervals to replenish, in order to keep it constantly good. This is not the evil, however, in the administration of banking establishments, from which the public have to fear much, or long. It is one of a very different character. It is deception; artful mismanagement; sometimes deliberate fraud; discounts for personal favor; loaning notes on bad or insufficient security, and without enough metallic currency or bullion or capital of any sort to pay them off or redeem them when they are presented.

It is from these, and similar causes, and not from the indiscreet, unprofitable over issue of paper, that the great distresses and embarrassments connected with monied institutions have principally arisen. How they are effectually to be prevented, we are not prepared to say. In equable times, when business is regular and uniform, a large number of separate, independent banks have a great power in correcting it. It is the interest of each to check the others' issues; they, therefore, watch each other, often try each other; and their competition will have a powerful effect in regulating each other's transactions, and in making them all equal and fair. But business is not always regular and uniform; and the danger can never thus be entirely removed. It deserves consideration, whether some greater personal responsibility ought not to be thrown by law upon the managers or directors of these institutions.

In our remarks we have constantly observed a distinction between fraudulent issues, and fair over issues, of bank notes. They

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

are commonly spoken of together; but it is important that they should be kept separate, because the former alone require the control of government, and the latter, we have shown to be comparatively a slight evil, which will speedily bring about its own remedy.

We have not stated Mr Cardozo's arguments against a paper currency; and we approach them reluctantly, because they seem to us unworthy of him, and can do no credit to his work. He says, that on the first substitution of paper for the coins, that class of laborers and manufacturers, who were engaged in producing the commodities, formerly to be sent abroad in exchange for bullion, are immense sufferers; and that if, in consequence of rapidly increasing business, a country should suddenly want more coins to effect its exchanges than it has, it will soon be supplied with them from those other countries, which must 'necessarily' have been at the same time and in the same proportion retarded. This is to us very unsatisfactory reasoning. How? Is it the doctrine here, that the gain of one nation is necessarily the loss of some other? And that a whole people is to be heavily taxed in order to procure an article which it does not want, and support a class of men, who would otherwise be elsewhere more profitably employed, both to themselves and to all around them? For, as we have seen, the expense of the rich currency is a levy on the wealth of every one. The profits of every employment must be lessened by it, and those, who are engaged in procuring the articles, which are to be sent out for the importation of the precious metals, must be, in their proportion, sufferers with the rest. The above arguments, cannot be the deliberate sentiments of our author. If he has not formally disavowed them in other parts of his book, he has advanced principles, which are at variance and inconsistent with them.

On the whole, our readers will easily gather, from what we have said, our opinion of Mr Cardozo's pamphlet. It is generally interesting to us. It contains some very ingenious reasonings, particularly in the last chapter, on taxes. The errors of the author seem to be those of precipitancy, and want of care; and this remark applies as well to his faults of style, as to the opinions he advances. It is sometimes difficult to ascertain, in the beginning of a chapter, what he intends to do; and we are not quite sure, that we have found it all out, when we arrive at the end. But with all these faults, we have no hesitancy in recommending the book to those, who are fond of such inquiries, and who are willing to see the critics of Smith, and of the lovers of Smith in their turn also, severely criticised.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ART. XII.—*Russian Tales; from the French of Count Xavier de Maistre, Author of the 'Leper of Aost,' &c.* 12mo. pp. 197. Philadelphia. H. C. Carey & I. Lea. 1826.

THE two Tales, which compose this volume, belong to the series of productions, of which a favorable specimen was presented to the American public, about a year since, in the 'Leper of Aost,' of which an account was given in this journal at the time of its appearance. They are from the pen of the Count Xavier de Maistre, a native of Piedmont, who, after having risen to the rank of general in the Russian service, is now living in retirement at St Petersburg. With two other tales, as yet untranslated, the three which have been now presented to the American public, in an English dress, constitute the Romantic works of the author. They have no pretensions to a rank among works of classical merit, and aim only at the character of short tales of inartificial structure, recommended by simplicity and nature. With the 'Leper of Aost,' the public is already too well acquainted, to require another allusion to it in our pages. We incline to give the Tales, which compose this volume, a preference over that which preceded them; and we cannot forbear to mention, as an additional commendation, that a beautiful typographical execution is in harmony with the contents of the volume. We confess ourselves so much the slaves of prejudice, as to like a neat volume; and have often thought we could enjoy the Waverley Novels, with a greater relish, if the American press had furnished us the first reprints of them in a style of publication, equal to that of the 'Russian Tales.'

The great attraction of these Tales (at least of the first of them), though it might not be fair to say the chief merit, resides in the scene. A faithful description of Russian manners, on Russian ground; the wastes of Siberia, the mountains of Caucasus, come to us with a fresh air of novelty. One is glad, at length, to escape from Portman Square and Bromley Park; from the banks of the Garonne and the passes of the Apennines, and all the rest of the traditionary geography, whose charms or terrors have been immortalized, in a hundred novels and romances. The regions, which furnish the 'local habitation' of these Tales, is not only new ground, but is in itself fertile of interest. Something of Oriental adventure attaches itself to whatever is Russian; while 'the fairy frostwork' of the North is superadded, with its glittering and brilliant imagery.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The first of the two Tales contained in the publication before us, is called the 'Prisoners of Caucasus.' The scene is laid in the mountain fastnesses of the unsubdued tribes, that inhabit the spots, to which philosophers now trace the whole proud family of the *homo sapiens Europæus*, and where the most perfect models of female beauty are still supposed to be found. Count de Maistre has sketched this landscape, no doubt, with a faithful, but with somewhat too sparing and rapid a hand. He traversed the region, at the head of his military command, and he has rather torn out a leaf of his book of surveys, than given us an amateur's painting. But we pay him the best compliment in our power by adding, that what he has done in this way, has but increased our wish, that he had indulged himself freely in these delineations. We much mistake, if the few following sentences do not place the reader on a field of action, new, peculiar, and awakening the hope of adventure.

'The Mountains of Caucasus have for a long time been included within the limits of the Russian empire, without forming a part of its jurisdiction. Their uncivilized inhabitants, divided by interests and unconnected by language, form a cluster of small tribes, who have little political connexion, but are equally animated by a love of independence and a spirit of rapine.

'One of the most numerous and formidable of these tribes, is that of the Tchetchengs, who inhabit the great and little Kabarda; two provinces, the high valleys of which extend to the summits of Caucasus. They are a handsome, spirited, intelligent people, but rapacious and cruel, and in a state of continual hostility with the "troops of the Line." Under this latter name are comprehended several military posts, occupied by the Russian troops, between the Caspian and Black Seas, from the mouth of the Terek to the entrance of the Kuban.

'It is in the midst of these dangerous hordes, and in the centre of this immense range of mountains, that the Russian government has opened a road of communication with its Asiatic possessions. Redoubts, built at intervals, secure the road into Georgia; but no traveller would be daring enough to traverse alone the intermediate space; twice every week a convoy of infantry, with a few field pieces and a strong detachment of Cossacks, affords an escort to travellers and to the messengers of government. One of these fortifications, erected at the entrance of the mountains, has insensibly assumed the appearance of a well peopled village; and, from its commanding situation, it is called "Wladi-Caucasus" ("Wladeti" signifying in the Russian language, to command, domineer); and it is the residence of the officer who

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

commands the troops engaged in the fatiguing service, which has been briefly described.' pp. 13—15.

We have not space to make copious extracts from this pleasing tale; nor is it worth while to reduce it to a skeleton of an abstract. It is, as presented to us by the author, a compressed narrative. The incidents given are enough for a full sized romance, with no greater expansion than the rules of art admit, and, to speak critically on the subject, the story is too full of adventure. The author, in the attempt to embody it in too small a compass, has not allowed himself sufficient room, either for scenery or character, and has been obliged to leave some parts of the story too little *motivés* to please. Thus the murder of Mamet, as related, seems an unnecessary piece of cruelty, not requisite to furnish out the composition of Ivan's character, nor seemingly required by anything else in the plot. With a little more care in the execution, it could have been avoided or shown to be necessary.

We have indulged ourselves in these strictures, because we fear we shall have to bestow unqualified praise on 'Prascovia Lopouloff;' a tale every way meriting the attention of the reader, and sure to reward it. This is the name of the heroine, whose adventures form the subject of Madame Cottin's charming romance. The incidents related in Count de Maistre's work were matters of notoriety in Petersburg; the residence and connexions of the author at that capital put it in his power to become acquainted with them, and the use made of the names of the imperial family, by a person of rank and character, is a sufficient guaranty for the authenticity of the facts. Here, then, is the real exploit, which, though it seems in Madame Cottin's novel to go beyond the bounds of possibility, is yet, in the authentic narrative, far more astonishing; inasmuch as an humbler education, than that ascribed to Elizabeth, makes the conception of her design more extraordinary, on the part of the wonderful girl, who undertook and achieved it. It appears from this narrative, that when she left her home, to traverse the Russian empire, a distance of three thousand wersts, to ask her father's pardon of the emperor, this poor female was unable to read or write.

We freely confess, that 'Prascovia Lopouloff,' although inferior in mere literary execution to 'Elizabeth,' is, in our opinion of the matter, infinitely before it in character and interest. In all the points of difference, the advantage is decidedly in favor of 'Prascovia.' Madame Cottin, fearing that the simple truth was neither

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

quite dramatic nor quite elevated enough, has given us rather more plot and a good deal more sentiment; and it would be certainly churlish to quarrel with her elegant performance. But what could be added to the truth of such an adventure? There were but two possible ways, in which a severe taste could admit of the treatment of this subject. It must either be told in its pure Doric simplicity, as Count de Maistre has told it, or it must be transfigured, by some Shaksperian power, beyond the reach of any common genius. Madame Cottin, of course, could not think of this way of proceeding, and she has, therefore, sacrificed the stern and chaste character of the truth, by adding to it the ordinary appendages of a novel. She has made of her subject a performance, which stands in somewhat the same relation to the reality (and that is the work, not of Count de Maistre, but of Truth and Fact), as one of Ducis' translations stands in, to the original of Shakspeare. As Quintilian tells his pupil, that *he* may be sure of having made good progress, who delights in Cicero, we would say to all our youthful readers, into all whose hands the 'Russian Tales' we trust will pass, that unless they prefer 'Prascovia' to 'Elizabeth,' their taste needs correcting.

The ingenious and distinguished translator, who has favored the American public with the version of these Tales, has, in his Preface, alluded to another heroine as a conception unquestionably suggested by the adventures of Prascovia. He expresses himself in the following manner.

'A comparison of the "Heart of Mid Lothian," and of "Prascovia Lopouloff," may, at once, illustrate the difference between the texture of mere imaginary tales, and romantic stories which have the recommendation of truth, and place in a strong light the distinctive and preeminent talent of the author of the Waverley novels. Both heroines are represented as uneducated, and are alike lovely in their native excellence. Their undertakings are the noblest display of female heroism; they come into contact with almost every class of society; they address monarchs and ministers, encounter numerous toils and dangers, experience a great variety of fortune, and succeed beyond their hopes. Yet, how different are the two works! Had the great novelist undertaken to write the history of the Russian heroine, he hardly could have avoided introducing probable though not actual events, fictitious incidents merely for the sake of their dramatic effect, and characteristic but extensive dialogues. Count Maistre was either conscious that he could not be successful in such amplifications of feeling, such developments of character, and such an unravelling

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

of action, or, confining himself to the simple duty of a biographer, he preferred to interest by mere sketches, chalked out with a vigorous and steady hand. Perhaps Retsch might not, in so masterly a manner, have illustrated some scenes of Göthe's Faustus, in finished engravings, as in his outlines. Yet, to real talent alone is it given to know the compass and strength of its own powers.' pp. 8—10.

These observations of M. de Wallenstein are just; and the allusion to Retsch's Sketches remarkably happy. Another inference also may be made from the comparison of Jeannie Deans with Prascovia, either in Count de Maistre's or Madame Cottin's personation. The enterprise really achieved by the Russian heroine, was incomparably more arduous, than that ascribed to Jeannie Deans. The difference in point of distance, between the journey from Siberia to St Petersburg and that from Edinburgh to London, vast as is that difference, is but a single circumstance, in which the true exploit exceeds the fictitious. But how different is the effect of their treatment; for more, far more than Count de Maistre has excelled Madame Cottin, does the purely fictitious Jeannie surpass even Prascovia. This is the triumph of creative, or as we have just called it, Shaksperian genius; and though the simple and devoted heroism of the forlorn Siberian girl was unquestionably the model, on which Jeannie's character was constructed, the production of the master mind exceeds even that of nature, in all the difference between an idealized statue and a portrait. To express all that we would say on this topic, we might compare Prascovia to a vigorous and faithful painting from life; Elizabeth to what is called a flattered likeness; and Jeannie Deans to one of those creations of the chisel or the pencil, where nature herself is outdone by the genius of her great lord, selecting, combining, and ennobling her most lovely features.

We would not entirely dismiss this work, without a well deserved compliment to the success, with which the translation has been executed. Let the reader, who wishes to judge of this, and we will suppose him to be one of the well educated, accomplished young men, who talk of knowing French, Italian, and Spanish, on the score of being able to exchange a salutation in those tongues, let him make the experiment of translating an English book, into either of them, and submit his performance for revision to a native Frenchman, Italian, or Spaniard. The defects in language, in this version, are neither so numerous nor

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

so considerable, as may be found in most of the fashionable productions of the English literature of the day. Nor is mere grammatical correctness its sole merit. It is possible, as every scholar knows, that a translation, without violating the sense of a single passage, should amount, after all, to anything but a faithful image of the literary character of the original. The *tone* of Count de Maistre's mode of writing is one of its great merits, and this is very successfully reproduced by M. de Wallenstein.

ART. XIII.—*Report from the Commissioners appointed to Revise the Statute Laws of the State of New York, prepared in Obedience to a Resolution of the Honorable the Assembly. Communicated March* 15, 1826. pp. 112. Albany.

THERE are few questions of internal improvement, upon which sound and liberal minds are more divided among us, than upon the expediency and practicability of substituting a general code for the whole mass of common and statute law. We cannot pretend to much consistency in our own pages upon this topic, having already found occasion, as has happened to some lawyers, to argue both sides of the case, before the question is well settled. There is no great evil in this, as respects ourselves or the public, since we do not set up for an inflexible character of individuality; and as in regard to matters of commerce between men, it is more important to the community that the rules of law be plain and certain, than what those rules may be, so upon general questions of policy and morals, it is far more important that they should be well discussed, than that this or that set of opinions should be uniformly maintained in a journal.

The sense of the profession in this country, we think, is against this great scheme of legal reform. Technical jurists are probably less sensitive than others to the alleged inconveniences of the present system; they are at any rate better aware of the difficulties and dangers of the proposed change; and they perhaps feel a more solemn attachment to the venerable fabric of the common law, which has sheltered and protected them and their ancestors for a thousand years. Even from the profession, however, we do not hear an undivided voice. On the contrary,

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

learned and eminent counsellors are ranged on both sides of the controversy; and in Louisiana, where the task has been entered upon, under the sanction of legislative authority, and is now prosecuting with great zeal, the code has nevertheless been attacked, and is defended with a warmth approaching to bitterness. If we may be allowed to exercise a little of the spirit of prophecy, we think we can perceive in this the coming shadow of a mighty war. The Louisianian controversy we take to be the beginning of a legal feud, which is not to be kept within the narrow pale of a State sovereignty, or bounded by the banks of the Mississippi. Codes are to be proposed, discussed, assailed, defended, throughout the union; and we look to see the day, when *codifiers* and *anticodifiers* will wage a war as fierce and interminable, as that which raged of yore between the Doctors of Admiralty and his Majesty's servants of King's Bench. We do not mean to hasten hostilities; and having already given our opinion on each side, we choose now to reserve ourselves for decided measures, until we shall have an opportunity of witnessing the affray, and putting out our strength to some purpose on the best side.

The subject presented to our consideration by the pamphlet before us, is of a very different character, or at least of a more limited extent, presenting a question respecting which, in the abstract, there will doubtless be far less diversity of opinion among professional men. We cannot suggest it to the reader's mind more profitably, than by a short history of the origin of this pamphlet, and a statement of its contents. It will be recollected, that in 1824, the people of New York revised and made some considerable changes in their State constitution; consequently some alterations of their statutes became necessary; and by an act of the legislature passed on the 27th of November, 1824, three commissioners were appointed to prepare a revised edition of the general laws, with such amendments as might be conformable to the new constitutional requisitions. By an additional act passed on the 21st of April, 1825, the powers of these commissioners were much enlarged; they were authorized to consolidate all acts and parts of acts relating to similar subjects; to distribute the revised and consolidated acts methodically under proper titles and divisions; to omit what had been repealed, or had expired, or was repugnant to the constitution; to suggest the best mode of reconciling apparent contradictions, and supplying defects, and amending what needed

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

amendment; to designate what ought to be repealed as mischievous or useless, and recommend the passage of such new acts as might either be advantageous in themselves, or necessary to the system; and finally to complete the revision in all other respects in such manner as they might think expedient, in order to render the laws more plain and easy to be understood; and they are required moreover to lay portions of the revised and newly arranged acts before the Assembly, from time to time, to be examined, and if approved, to be made laws.

This extensive, and, as some think, dangerous power, was confided to able hands. The commissioners appointed under the first act were Erastus Root and Benjamin Butler, together with the learned exchancellor Kent. This last gentleman having declined the trust, John Duer was appointed in his room. Mr Root afterwards resigned his place at the board, and it was filled by Mr Wheaton, the well known and indefatigable reporter of the Supreme Court of the United States.

This pamphlet is the first report of the commissioners, prepared in obedience to a resolution of the Assembly, calling upon them to exhibit an account of their progress, and state when they should probably be in readiness for a final report. It contains some account of the labor they have hitherto accomplished, with a partial exhibition of its result. The first steps, of course, were to make a classification of the subjects of the public laws, and a brief analysis or digest of the whole, according to their proposed scheme. A subdivision of the first class of laws into a convenient number of chapters was next effected; and after this the commissioners proceeded to prepare particular chapters at large, subdividing each still farther into convenient articles and sections. A considerable portion of the first great division has been thus prepared in something less than a year from the commencement of their labors, and was ready to be presented to the legislature in March last. But the commissioners justly esteem it important, considering the natural connexion which exists between its chapters, that the whole of this part be completed, before any portion of it shall be reported for consideration and enactment. As a specimen of their work, however, they subjoin two complete chapters; the first, containing the whole proposed statute law, regarding 'elections other than for town officers;' the second, respecting the 'powers, duties, and disabilities of towns.' To these are appended a collection of the principal existing laws on those subjects, as they now stand

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

in the Statute Book; so that the reader has a fair opportunity of instituting a comparison between the new and the old, and of noting the character of the changes and innovations, which the revisers may have introduced.

That the convenience and utilityof the plan may be more extensively understood, we suppose it may be useful for us to present to our readers, distinctly, a general view of the sources and condition of the existing law of New York, a brief history of her legislation on the subject matter of the proposed code, and a more particular analysis of it as exhibited by the present commissioners.

The law of New York, as of most of the United States, has for its basis the common law of England. By the thirtyfifth article of her Constitution, the Convention of 1777, 'by the authority of the good people of the State, ordain, determine, and declare, that such parts of the common law of England, and of the statute law of England and Great Britain, and of the acts of the legislature of the Colony of New York, as together did form the law of the said Colony on the 19th of April, 1775, shall be and continue the law of this State, subject to such alterations and provisions as the legislature of this State shall from time to time make concerning the same;' excepting, however, such laws as regarded the ecclesiastical establishment of England, or the preservation of allegiance to the British crown, or such as were otherwise repugnant to the provisions of the Constitution. This was little more than declaring, that the laws of the Colony, whencesoever derived, should continue in force, until altered or abrogated by the legislative will. The statutes enacted by the British Parliament seldom extended in express terms to the plantations, and had consequently no intrinsic authority over them. So much of the statute law of England, as was created before the colonization of America, may, throughout the States, be considered as having been originally imported into the country by our English ancestors. They brought with them for their common law the existing law of the mother country, whether written or unwritten, rejecting only such parts as applied exclusively to a condition of things not known, or incapable of existence on this side of the Atlantic. To these are commonly added those British statutes of later growth, which have been considered declaratory or emendatory of the English common law, and as therefore naturally incorporating themselves into the unwritten law of the Colonies; and a few others, not coming

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

strictly within this class, may have been adopted with no other sanction than tacit consent and general conformity. Local usages, morever, must have existed in this as in the other Colonies; some of which may have had their origin in the notions of law, which were brought by the Dutch settlers from the continent of Europe, or in obsolete ordinances of the early colonial authorities; and others must naturally have grown out of the condition and circumstances of the people, at different periods of their colonial history. These particular customs, with the vast accession made to the common law of England by the rapid growth of commerce, and consequent adoption in the courts of entire new systems of maritime and commercial jurisprudence, probably completed the body of the common law, existing in New York at the era of the American Revolution. We are not sufficiently conversant with the niceties of local law in New York, to know how extensive was the above supposed infusion of continental law from a Dutch original, or how much of it can still be distinctly traced. The Dutch articles of capitulation of 1664, confirmed by treaty ten years after, expressly provide, among other things, that 'the Dutch shall enjoy their own customs concerning their *inheritances;*' but the Charter of Liberties, promulgated by the first colonial assembly, in 1683, settles, that an estate of inheritance *in lands* shall thenceforward be 'according to the customs and practice of his Majesty's realm of England;' and the Constitution of 1777, before cited, seems to allow no operation to existing usages as a part of the law of the land, excepting such as either appertained to the common law of England, or had received express sanction from colonial legislation. Yet the same act of the people, which admitted the common law of England, itself a curious aggregate of usages, customs, traditions, and adjudications, to prescribe to them their rules of civil conduct, could hardly have excluded, by mere implication, the particular customs of the Colony; and we cannot suppose, that while the traces of this foreign origin are yet distinctly visible in other relations, its impress should have been utterly obliterated from the whole body of the laws of this people.

Such being the condition of the common law of New York at the time of the Revolution, we are not aware that it has since undergone any greater change, than what may be called its natural growth by new combinations and applications of its principles, or else such limited alterations as belong to

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

the usual progress of legislation, in this country, except, that by an act passed in 1788, entitled 'an act for the amendment of the law, and the better advancement of justice,' it was enacted, 'that none of the statutes of England, or Great Britain, shall be considered as laws of this State.' It would be a delicate task, and somewhat foreign to our present purpose, to consider how far this general repudiation of the English statutes fairly extends, and what effect it has had, if any, upon the common law of the State, as existing at the time of its formation; and whether it has really been, conformably to the title of the act, an amendment of the law, and calculated for the better advancement of justice.

The statute law now in force in New York, is, of course, composed of the Constitution, treaties, and public laws of the United States, and the acts of its own State legislature. These last, with the exception of local and private acts, are in a great measure derived from British statutes of a date preceding the Revolution; in many instances they are copied verbatim from the English Statute Book, and in others its provisions are adopted with slight alterations of phraseology. The colonial statutes, declared by the Constitution to be a part of the law of the State, have never been rejected, like the British statutes, *en masse;* many, on the contrary, have been formally reenacted; and others probably mingle, unseen, in the current of legislation, and still have a silent operation in pointing out the just construction of existing laws. A large body of new statute law must, of course, have been the immediate growth of the Revolution. Government was to be organized; courts were to be instituted; the administration of justice, civil and criminal, was to be regulated; forms of process and of judicial proceedings to be provided; the whole future course of legislation and judicature to be determined. This sudden influx of new matter, somewhat hastily contrived for the present exigency, must, of course, have led to many errors and imperfections, which were to be remedied from time to time, as experience should suggest them, by additional acts, modifying the former provisions, or wholly repealing them, and substituting something new, destined itself probably to be in like manner the subject of future amendments, additions, and repeals; for 'it is most certain,' says a learned judge, who was more attentive to his law than his grammar, 'that time and long experience *is* much more ingenious, subtil, and judicious, than all the wisest and acutest wits in the

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

world coexisting can be.' Besides supplying the defects and repairing the errors necessarily incident to first experiments in legislation, the unexampled prosperity of the nation, and of no part of it more than this distinguished State, the almost incredible growth of population, and immense extension of commerce, a vast and rapid accumulation of wealth, wonderful inventions and discoveries in mechanics and the arts, great public schemes of internal improvement, and innumerable private associations for the employment and security of large capitals in trade and manufactures, have for these forty years past combined to create a real demand for new laws, adapted to the improved condition and modern exigencies of society. It would have been well for the community, and a great relief to courts and counsellors, as well as to revisers and digesters, if the growth of the Statute Book, had arisen wholly from such causes, and only kept pace with the natural demand. But the frequency of popular elections, the minute representation of sectional interests, and the Athenian fondness for novelty among us, have given rise to a very mischievous facility of legislation.

It is notorious that a great proportion of the changes made in our public laws, even those of the most important and extensive operation, are made for particular cases, and are sometimes very ill adapted for any other. It is equally notorious, that an act of incorporation is commonly granted to any set of men, who ask it, for almost any purpose, and with almost any powers, which they are pleased to have inserted in their bill. We do not mean to insinuate, that this is owing to improper influences; although there has been a shrewd suspicion of such operating, in one or two cases, to a small extent upon the legislature of New York. We apprehend that such instances, if they exist in any legislature of the Union, are extremely rare; but we think there is in all of them a slovenly and careless mode of legislating, to a degree almost as culpable; for it is a good maxim of the common law, that gross *laches* is tantamount to fraud. Private bills are commonly drafted by the petitioner, or his counsel; are often read by their titles only, and pass, almost of course, without amendment, and in fact without any effectual notice of their contents to the house. Important changes of general laws, to subserve a particular, though perhaps honest end, are sometimes artfully thrust in by their friends among the matters of little moment, to be hurried through, at the end of a session, without debate, and consequently often without due intelli-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

gence of their necessary operation; and in other cases, where the principles of a law have been fairly discussed and are well understood, the acts themselves are yet so inartificially and inaccurately penned as to beget great doubt and uncertainty of their true intent; giving rise to perpetual litigation and innumerable emendatory acts. The legislators themselves are often as much surprised as the courts, to find what has become law; and the chief business of each succeeding legislature is to patch up or repeal, what was ill done by its immediate predecessor.

These remarks are not intended to apply to New York alone; they are quite as true, perhaps more so, of other State legislatures; and, indeed, the whole foregoing history of the origin, progress, and condition, both of the common and statute law of New York, is, with little exception, a history of the law of all the other States of the old confederation.

If our statements are not greatly overcharged, it can readily be imagined what a mass of useless rubbish a few years of such legislation must accumulate in the Statute Book; how many acts are to be consulted, and how many doubts of construction resolved, before the most experienced lawyer can instruct his client in what ought to be so plain a matter as the operation of the written law; and how necessary some system of revision and consolidation must from time to time become.

There are few, if any, of the States in which something of this sort, more or less extensive, has not been attempted. In some of of their legislative assemblies, as in the Congress of the United States and the British Parliament, all acts relative to the same subject are occasionally reviewed and consolidated into one, with such amendments as experience of their practical operation may have suggested. In others, the whole Statute Book has been put into the hands of commissioners to be arranged for reenactment. Virginia, especially, deserves great praise, both as a Colony and a State, for her uniform attention to the reformation and republication of her statute laws. She has made, according to the statement of Mr Henning, who, as a reporter of her courts and a reviser of her laws, is well known to the profession generally, no less than twelve entire revisions; the first of them as early as 1632; the last in 1808. She has besides, under the superintendence of the gentleman abovementioned, recently achieved a great work, of a different character indeed, but sufficiently connected with our topic to allow us to notice it, as one of great importance to the history of the country, as well as the

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

administration of her own municipal law. We allude to the publication of her 'Statutes at Large; being a Collection of all the Laws of Virginia from the First Session of the Legislature in 1619;' occupying thirteen octavo volumes, of five or six hundred pages each. No similar work has as yet been attempted in any other State. Maine also deserves commendation for embracing the opportunity afforded by her erection into a separate State, to make great improvements in the Statute Book of Massachusetts. One of her first acts was to appoint a Board of Jurisprudence, consisting of eminent lawyers, to superintend the publication of the laws, with authority to classify and arrange the whole as to them might appear most convenient. They pursued the authority given them by consolidating all laws then in force relative to the same subject, and rejecting all which were repugnant and contradictory, so as to comprise the whole in a single moderate volume, containing everything useful for ordinary purposes, which was to be found in the four volumes then existing of Massachusetts laws. Massachusetts, we regret to say, has done less in this matter than she might have done with perfect safety and great usefulness. There has been no extensive revision of her laws for more than forty years; nor any preceding the last for more than a century. We, of course, do not consider mere collections and republications, by authority, as revisions. The collection of Ancient Charters and General Laws of the Colony and Province of Massachusetts Bay, in a single volume, though highly valuable to the historian, and perfectly convenient to the profession, is still but a meagre substitute, as a collection of legal and historical documents, for the statutes at large. The last edition of the General Laws of the Commonwealth, from the adoption of the Constitution, though published after the publication of the Laws of Maine, has none of the improvements of that book, but consists of two considerable volumes, and abounds in acts additional, restraining, extending, repealing, restoring, and rerepealing, without consolidation or method, other than belongs to chronological arrangement, and frequent references from act to act. The fault is in the authority given; not in the execution of the task.

But it is time to advert again to the laws of New York. 'The era of legislation,' as it has been called, in that Colony, was 1683. But the colonial acts of that and several subsequent years, with a few exceptions, are not to be found in any printed edition of the laws extant; and it is stated by learned gentlemen,

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

who had occasion to make the research in 1813, that but few of them are preserved in the Secretary's office. The earliest edition known of the colonial laws, is Bradford's, published in 1710, and containing the laws from 1691. He published another edition in 1726, bringing the laws down to that time. In 1762, the colonial laws then in force, were collected, revised, and published under the authority of the General Assembly, by William Smith, Junior, and William Livingston. Another authoritative revision and republication of the colonial laws took place in 1774. The first revision and collection of the laws of the *State* of New York, was published in 1789, by Samuel Jones and Richard Varrick, containing, in two volumes, the laws passed from the adoption of the Constitution in 1777, and an appendix of certain colonial laws. No other general revision by direction of the legislature took place until 1801, when James Kent, the late Chancellor, then Chief Justice, and Jacob Radcliff, then a Justice of the Supreme Court, were appointed 'to prepare for the press, and to cause to be printed in as many volumes, and under such heads, or divisions, as they shall think proper, all the acts and parts of acts of the legislature of this State *now in force*.' This labor was accomplished in two volumes, published the following year, and commonly known in the reports as the *Revised Laws* of New York. These took effect from the 1st of October, 1801, from which time all acts and parts of acts, coming within the purview and operation of the revised acts, were repealed. In 1813, a similar authority to revise and arrange the laws, was conferred on William P. Van Ness and John Woodworth; and the result of their labors, exhibiting the actual state of the statute law of New York at that date, appears likewise in two volumes, published the same year. This edition, commonly known as the *New Revised Laws*, contains references to all the preceding editions of Colonial and State laws, to the English and British acts of Parliament, *in pari materiâ*, and also to the English and American reporters upon points of construction. Both in this edition and that of Messrs Kent and Radcliff, all the provisions then in force relating to the same particular, are consolidated into separate acts; but there is little attempt at a scientific arrangement or classification of the subjects. A considerable accumulation of laws, passed since 1813, must now remain wholly without arrangement; yet what has been done by the former revisers will doubtless abridge considerably the labors of the present commissioners, whose plan, as developed in the Report, we now propose to consider.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The whole Statute Book is divided into five parts, arranging and classifying the laws as follows.

'I. Those which relate to the territory; the political divisions; the civil polity; and the internal administration of the State.

'II. Those which relate to the acquisition, the enjoyment, and the transmission of property, real and personal; to the domestic relations; and generally to all matters connected with private rights.

'III. Those which relate to the judiciary establishments, and the mode of procedure in civil cases.

'IV. Those which relate to crimes and punishments; to the mode of procedure in criminal cases; and to prison discipline.

'V. Public laws of a local and miscellaneous character; including the laws concerning the city of New York; acts incorporating cities and villages; and such other acts of incorporation as it may be deemed necessary to publish.' p. 7.

This general arrangement, borrowed apparently from Blackstone, is simple, and adequate to its end.

The first part is then subdivided into nineteen chapters, the titles of which sufficiently indicate the nature of the classification.

'Chapter I, to be entitled, Of the boundaries of the State and its territorial jurisdiction.

II. Of the civil divisions of the State.

III. Of the census, or enumeration of the inhabitants of the State.

IV. Of the public officers, their qualifications, privileges, and disabilities; the mode of their election or appointment; and the tenure of their respective offices.

V. Of elections other than for town officers.

VI. Of the duties, privileges, and disabilities of the legislative and principal executive officers of the State.

VII. Of the powers, duties, and privileges of towns.

VIII. Of the powers, duties, and privileges of counties.

IX. Of the salaries and fees of the several offices of this State, except those connected with the judiciary.

X. Of the public property and the funds of the State.

XI. Of the assessment and collection of taxes.

XII. Of the militia, and the public defence.

XIII. Of the public health.

XIV. Of public instruction.

XV. Of agriculture, trade, and manufactures.

XVI. Of highways and bridges.

XVII. Of ferries.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

XVIII. Of the internal police of the State.

XIX. Of the publication and construction of the statutes of this State.' pp. 9—12

We regret, that our limits will not allow us to extract one of the chapters, exhibited in the pamphlet as a specimen, entire. We can, however, briefly exhibit something of the mode of farther subdivision. Chapter VII. 'Of the powers, duties, and privileges of towns,' is distributed under six titles.

'Title I. Of the powers and rights of towns as bodies politic, and the mode of exercising them.

Title II. Of town meetings, and the time, purposes, and manner of holding the same.

Title III. Of the qualifications of town officers, and the tenure of their offices.

Title IV. Of vacancies in town offices, and the mode of supplying them.

Title V. Of the duties of certain town officers.

Title VI. Of town charges, and the mode of defraying them.'

Some of these titles are again subdivided into several articles; and each article, or title not divided into articles, is again subdivided into sections. Title II. for instance, consists of the four following articles.

'Article I. Of annual and special town meetings.'

This article directs when and where the meetings shall be held; what officers shall be chosen; what notice shall be given; and defines the powers of the electors at such meetings.

'Article II. Of the mode of conducting town meetings.'

This article directs, who shall preside at such meetings; defines the powers of the presiding officers; prescribes the duties of the clerk; fixes the duration of the meeting, the mode of determining questions by vote, &c.

'Article III. of the election of town officers.'

This directs the manner in which the polls shall be opened and closed, the form of the ballot, the mode of counting, and declaring, and recording the votes.

'Article IV. contains all such miscellaneous and local provisions concerning town meetings as could not well be disposed of under the foregoing heads.'

As a short specimen of the phraseology, we will cite the whole of the first title of this chapter.

'1. Each town in this State is a body politic, and as such has capacity

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

'To sue and be sued, in the manner prescribed in the laws of this State;

'To purchase and hold lands within its own limits, and for the use of its inhabitants; subject to the power of the legislature over such limits;

'To make such contracts, and to purchase and hold such personal property, as may be necessary to the exercise of its corporate or administrative powers;

'And to make such orders for the disposition, regulation, or use of its corporate property, as may be deemed conducive to the interest of its inhabitants.

'2. No town shall possess or exercise any corporate powers, except such as are enumerated in this chapter; or shall be specially given by law; or shall be necessary to the exercise of the powers so enumerated or given.

'3. All acts and proceedings by or against a town, in its corporate capacity, shall be in the name of such town; but every conveyance of lands within the limits of such town, made in any manner, for the use or benefit of its inhabitants, shall have the same effect as if made to the town by name.

'4. The powers of a town, as a body politic, can only be exercised in town meeting, or in pursuance of a resolution there adopted.'

No enacting clause is proposed to be introduced, excepting at the beginning of each of the five general divisions, where it is preceded by a short preamble, setting forth the expediency of simplifying, consolidating, arranging, and amending the statutes relative to the subjects of that division.

The commissioners have not yet proceeded in their analysis beyond the first general division, the preparation of which, with the necessary preliminary studies and inquiries, they state had furnished them sufficient employment between the periods of their appointment and of the report. Indeed they add, that more than three fourths of the existing public statutes fall under this head, now occupying nearly one thousand two hundred pages, which they hope to reduce, however, notwithstanding the addition of many new provisions, to about half their present extent. The task they have undertaken, with the scrupulous fidelity of execution, which we doubt not belongs to them, is indeed a prodigious labor not to be accomplished in a day. Some of its intrinsic difficulties cannot be better set forth than in their own words.

'In the progress of the work, many changes in the arrange-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ment originally contemplated; frequent transpositions in the order of the subjects; and new divisions and subdivisions of the different parts, became necessary. It is not until successive experiments have been actually made, that it can be satisfactorily ascertained, under what general head the subjects of some of the acts, may most properly be comprised. But the most serious portion of our labor is the drawing up of the text itself. To reduce the sections to a proper brevity; to distribute them in a suitable manner; and to simplify the language in which they are written; it becomes absolutely necessary to write the whole with our own hands, and often to give our draughts several revisions, before we can so far satisfy ourselves, in regard to arrangement and expression, as to authorise the employment of a copyist. We can therefore derive but little aid from clerks or amanuenses; nor have we thought it consistent with the great importance of the trust confided to us, to leave to any one of our number exclusively, the completion of any part of the work, though by such a division of labor, our progress might have been hastened. To preserve uniformity of expression, and to make our performances in every sense of the words, joint and several, we have adopted the plan of alloting to each other, from time to time, convenient portions of the statutes; of committing the draughts prepared by each to the separate and critical revisal of the others; and then of subjecting them to the joint examination of all.' p. 14.

From the brief outline we have given of this scheme, and the foregoing account of labor bestowed upon it by the commissioners, the professional reader can duly estimate the magnitude of the task, and perceive at once the great practical convenience of a code so digested, by such hands, when compared with the clumsy and confused mass of contradictory materials, which now encumbers our statute books. For the difficulty is hardly less with us, than it was with the English in the time of James; and Lord Bacon, in his proposal to that monarch, for the amending of the laws of his realm, takes occasion to press upon his Majesty a vigorous *argumentum ad hominem*, by reminding him, that 'there is such an accumulation of statutes concerning one matter, and they so cross and intricate, as the certainty of the law is lost in the heap; as your Majesty had occasion to experience last day upon the point, whether the incendiary of Newmarket should have the benefit of his clergy.' Still there is always room to fear, that in the general methodizing and amending even of the statute law alone, too much of substance may be sacrificed to mere method; or rather too much

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

new law may be suddenly introduced, from the great temptation of filling out a noble outline and erecting a perfect system; in short, there is some reason to fear lest systematizing should degenerate into absolute codification. It is remarkable that two such minds, as those of Lord Bacon and Lord Hale, should have concurred, at periods when many of the evils they complain of were certainly less sensibly felt, than at the present day, not only in favorable disposition towards what may be called moderate reform in the law, but in devoting themselves to consideration of the means by which it might best be effected. Indeed the latter, as far as we can gather from his preface to Rolle's Abridgment, seems to have contemplated the formation of a sort of *corpus juris communis* 'out of the many books of our English laws, for the public use, and for the contracting of the laws into a narrower compass and method.' Perhaps, however, regarding the extreme jealousy of innovation, which he elsewhere expresses, we should understand him here as intending nothing more than was proposed by Lord Bacon; whose plan, in regard to the common law, was first, to compile a select volume of forms and precedents from the ancient rolls; secondly, to make a perfect collection of adjudged cases, omitting all that were doubted or overruled, or mere repetitions of former decisions, or which were entirely antiquated and obsolete, as well as 'all idle queries, which are but seminaries of doubts and uncertainties,' and reducing into a compendious form such as were reported with unnecessary prolixity; thirdly, to form a book of institutes, and a few other auxiliaries to the study of the law, which he probably would not have thought necessary to propose, had he lived to the days of Sir William Blackstone, certainly not had he seen all the labor saving machines of the present age. In regard to the statutes, his design was simply to repeal and discard from the books all that were dormant or obsolete, to mitigate the penalties of many, and to consolidate into one clear and uniform law all those which regarded like subjects. The most strenuous opposer of codes would hardly disagree to these modes of amendment.

But the gentlemen of New York are going a step farther, in regard to the reformation of the statute law. They propose, not merely a consolidation, but an entire new order of arrangement, accompanied by changes of phraseology, with a view to greater clearness and precision, and even by provisions wholly new, to supply and remedy what are in their judgment palpable

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

omissions and imperfections. The title, for instance, which we have cited at length, does not contain a single sentence, nor indeed a single provision, which is to be found in any former volume of the laws; on the contrary, the first section is avowedly extracted from a decision of the Chancery Court of the State; the third section was suggested by decisions at common law, establishing certain principles in regard to counties, 'that would probably be extended to towns under like circumstances;' and the other two sections are wholly their own. Now it must be confessed, that this is exercising the powers confided to them in their greatest latitude; and it is not wonderful, that those who are timid on the subject of innovation, or at least abundantly careful, that every change of the laws 'be demonstrable to be for the better, and such as cannot introduce any considerable inconvenience in the other end of the wallet,' should be somewhat apprehensive of unforeseen consequences.

It is but just, however, to state, that the extract we have given is not a fair sample of the two proposed chapters in this particular. It is the only title which is composed entirely without the aid of the existing statutes. Neither do the commissioners themselves consider these chapters, which contain doubtless a great deal of novelty, as specimens, in this respect, of the whole work. They justly consider, that there is a great distinction between statutes regarding electoral franchises and modes of public proceeding, and those which concern private rights more nearly, regulating the distribution of property and the domestic relations. With the former, they have felt themselves at greater liberty to fill up what was wholly unprovided for by the existing letter of the Statute Book, under the idea that these laws are of a character peculiarly simple in themselves, and such as ought to be expressed in a form level to the comprehension of all capacities, leaving little or nothing to be supplied by inference or by mere conjecture. They are besides, careful in every section to point out what is substantially new, and to refer, if it be an old provision newly clad, to the precise source from whence it was derived. They admit that these chapters 'can hardly be called revisions of existing laws,' and consider them rather as suggestions to the legislature in the most convenient form.

With respect to the class of statutes falling under the second general division, namely, 'those which relate to the acquisition, the enjoyment, and the transmission of property, real and personal;

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

to the domestic relations; and generally to all matters connected with private rights,' the commissioners appear to be duly sensible of the increasing difficulty of their task, and by no means indicate an overweening confidence of success. These are statutes of which they say, 'almost every line has been the subject of judicial interpretation;' and by a salutary provision in the act from which they derive their authority, they are expressly restrained from making any change in the phraseology or distribution of the sections of any statute, that has been the subject of a legal decision, by which its established construction might be affected or impaired. If in this portion of their labor, they should observe the same scrupulous regard to the duty of forbearance as they have thus far to a most diligent and indefatigable exercise of their extensive powers upon the first class of laws, and yet succeed in reducing them into an equally simple and methodical arrangement, they will have achieved a work which will do infinite honor to them and their constituents, and be of great service not only to the profession, but to the community at large. We have little apprehension, from their guarded and deliberate labor, taken in connexion with their known professional learning and practical skill, as well as the specimen they have laid open to our examination, of dangerous innovations; and we believe, that the final completion of this great work will constitute a new 'era of legislation' in New York, the benefits of which will be experienced, ere long, by the necessary force of example, in her sister States, if not in other portions of the civilized world. Yet, not being prepared to go all lengths with the reformers of the day, and perceiving a disposition in the commissioners to exercise their right of suggesting new things to the legislature pretty extensively, we cannot take our leave without recommending moderation in this particular, and reminding them, in the language of Lord Hale, that 'the business of amendment or alteration of the laws is a choice and tender business, neither wholly to be omitted when the necessity requires, and yet very cautiously and warily to be undertaken though the necessity may, or at least may *seem* to require it.'

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Art. XIV.—CRITICAL NOTICES.

1.—*Francis Berrian, or the Mexican Patriot.* 2 vols. 12mo. Boston. Cummings, Hilliard, & Co. 1826.

This novel, if we except one or two introductory pages, purports to be drawn up in the form of a narrative, by the hero, of his own adventures. He represents himself as a native of Massachusetts, who, on coming of age, about the year 1821, sets out to seek his fortune in the Western country. After descending the Ohio and Mississippi, he proceeds on a trading expedition to the Spanish provinces in the vicinity of Louisiana. In the course of his rambles, he visits the Commanche Indians, a tribe who reside near the Rio del Norte. Here he finds the heroine of the work, Doña Martha, daughter of the governor of Durango, a lady who has been taken prisoner by the Commanches, and whom he soon rescues from captivity and restores to her friends, though not without exposing his life to imminent peril, and receiving several severe wounds. This last circumstance compels him to take up his abode for a while, in the mansion of the Conde Alvaro, father of Martha. Berrian, of course, soon falls in love with the young lady, but is exposed to perpetual annoyance and persecution from Father Joseph, the priest of the family, and from a rival called Don Pedro, a young Spanish nobleman. After completely recovering from his wounds, he is induced to prolong his stay in the house of the Conde, in the capacity of a teacher of English, till Don Pedro finally procures his banishment.

He departs and joins himself to a body of Patriots, who are then rising in Texas, fights several battles and combats, meets more wonders, not than a man, but than a hundred men, and after various alternations of fortune, becomes second in command of the Mexican forces, which drive Iturbidé from the throne, and is the most efficient instrument in that important revolution. He then marries Martha, while Don Pedro and Father Joseph are torn in pieces by the mob, conducts her in triumph to his native village in Massachusetts, and finally returns with her to Durango.

Such is a brief sketch of the main story of this novel. It is certainly constructed, in many respects, with a very moderate degree of skill.

In the first place, the hero begins his discourse, by stating, that his adventures are now over, and have terminated happily, a statement, which relieves us from all anxiety for his fate; and

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

we thus enter on the perusal of the story with the same kind of unlucky knowledge, which is sometimes acquired by looking over at once to the last page of a novel, an expedient, which every true novel reader holds in utter abhorrence. Our author has made a mistake of much greater consequence, in fixing the period of his story so near our own times, a blunder of the same kind with that committed by Miss Edgeworth, in making Lord Oldborough prime minister of Great Britain in 1808. The adventures of Francis Berrian are of themselves sufficiently marvellous, but when they are related as happening in the years 1821 and 1822; when we are informed (vol. II. p. 235.) that though Santa Anna held the supreme command, Berrian possessed coordinate authority (a distinction not extremely clear); when we are further told, that Mr Berrian really originated every measure, which overthrew the despotism of Iturbidé, our thoughts are driven in spite of ourselves, from the tale before us to actual history, and we are compelled at every step to recollect the discrepancy between them.

We shall not go into any difficult questions respecting the kind and degree of illusion, produced by a well wrought fiction in the reader's mind. But some illusion there certainly must be, and everything of the kind is effectually precluded in the present case, by the notoriety, as well as the recent date, of every material event connected with the Mexican Revolution; and as if all this were not sufficient to dispel the charm, which it is the business of the author to create and sustain, he has, as we have already stated, actually brought Francis Berrian and Doña Martha to one of the villages in one of our own states. We strive in vain, while reading a story like this, to shut our eyes even for a moment on its palpable incredibility. Every line suggests to us, that if any citizen of Massachusetts had performed, in any part of Mexico, one half the warlike achievements of Francis Berrian, and then returned homeward through our Western country, all the inhabitants of the states through which he passed, would have been thoroughly acquainted with his story, and eager to manifest their sense of his heroic valor. He would have been escorted from town to town by independent militia companies, would have received the degree of Doctor of Laws from a dozen colleges, and been compelled to go through a long campaign of public dinners, far more dangerous to life and health, than all his Mexican adventures.

We have noticed with the more severity our author's mistakes in the conduct of his story, because modern novelists seem to consider this part of their business as of very little consequence. The author of Waverley is notoriously careless in this respect,

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

and we find inferior authors availing themselves rapidly of the authority of his example. Indeed we fear, that it will soon be as discreditable for a great novelist to frame a good story, as it was a few years ago for a great man to write a good hand. We forbear to notice any of our author's minor faults, but cannot help remarking on the letters of Doña Martha, as singularly unfortunate specimens of epistolary composition.

His principal and only very striking merit, is his talent for description. This alone is, however, sufficient to redeem his greatest faults, and to entitle his work to a thorough perusal. We recollect no author, except Irving, who has painted American scenery with equal power. The descriptions of the Ohio and Mississippi, of the valley of the Commanches, and many other passages of the same kind, are such as would do honor to any author. It was a well known practice of many of the greatest masters of landscape painting, to confine themselves to the representation of inanimate nature, and to procure other artists to draw such figures, as might be necessary to complete their pictures. We should think that our author might derive a useful hint from this practice, did we not believe, that his defects in the construction of his story and the delineation of his characters were those of negligence, and that a writer, who has shown such talents in one branch of his art, and that a very important one, could scarcely fail of success in others, if willing to seek it by proper exertion.

2.—*The Appeal for suffering Genius, a Poetical Address for the Benefit of the Boston Bard; and the Triumph of Truth, a Poem.* By Daniel Bryan. 8vo. pp. 80. Washington. Way & Gideon.

To the poetical parts of this volume, the author has attached a Preface of considerable length, in which he explains his purpose, and a large part of which is taken up in apologizing for 'his juvenile effusions' published some years ago under the title of the 'Mountain Muse, or the Adventures of Daniel Boone.' That work, 'the wild offspring of a rude undisciplined fancy,' his maturer judgment tells him contains imperfections, and he thinks some persons have formed a false estimate of his powers as a poet, from an ignorance of the circumstances under which his early genius expanded itself.

Mr Bryan is moreover apprehensive, that certain readers and editors, into whose hands the 'Mountain Muse' happened to fall,

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

have suffered the films of prejudice so far to gather around their vision, as not to be able to see clearly the merits of his later productions. Of this he gives some strong instances in point. How far the author's impressions are in reality well founded we know not, but he is certainly right in his position, that the aberrations of a youthful muse ought not to stamp a man's fame forever, in defiance of the vigorous and mature efforts of manhood. Among the great names at the head of English poetry, he cites those of Shakspeare, Pope, Byron, and justly asks with what propriety their merits would be decided by their first productions. These it would be idle to call up at the present day; they are forgotten. And so in other cases, like that of our poet, for instance, a generous criticism would throw a veil over the imperfections of youth, and rejoice that better fruits have sprung from maturity of years; or, to express the same thought in the poetical numbers of the author,

> 'Shall golden ore be spurned because it came
> From mines whence baser metals once were drawn?
> Shall eyes reject the sun's unclouded flame,
> Because dark mists obscured its struggling dawn?'

No, we say, not so; grasp the gold where you can find it, and enjoy the light when it comes. We agree, therefore, with Mr Bryan, that if any one, whether through prejudice or perverseness, has passed judgment on his later works, merely from an opinion derived from a perusal of the 'Mountain Muse,' written fourteen years ago, he has done essential injustice to the author.

The present volume contains two poems; the first is an 'Appeal in Behalf of the Boston Bard,' with the benevolent design of exciting the sympathy of the public for 'suffering genius;' the second is called 'The Triumph of Truth,' and was occasioned by the establishment of the censorship over the press in France. The 'Appeal' touches on several topics calculated to kindle a strong interest in the case of the suffering bard, and the deep sensibility and kind feelings of the author blend themselves closely with his poetical imagery, and give a melancholy tone to the utterings of his muse. It is rather as a poet of feeling, than of high descriptive powers, that we should characterize our author. He is patriotic, too, as will be seen by the following extract.

> 'But England's bards are blessed with patrons now,
> And freedom blushes while the Muse proclaims,
> That sons of genius from Columbia's shore,
> Beneath Britannia's fostering kindness, find
> The favor, which they vainly seek at home.
> Our Wests, our Allstons, and our Leslies, there,
> And there our Newtons, and our Bowmans, too,

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The enlivening sunshine of her smiles enjoy;
Their pencils catch the kindling glow of hope,
And on the canvass life and beauty start
At their creating touch. Columbians, rouse!
Your mental bondage burst; be free in thought;
In taste and judgment free.' p. 62.

In 'The Triumph of Truth,' Mr Bryan draws a vivid picture of that political state of a country, in which it is necessary to impose restrictions on the press, to prevent the diffusion of knowledge, and the operation of free principles. His muse here speaks with becoming indignation, and 'crowned oppressors,' and 'sceptred tyrants,' who use their power to perpetuate ignorance, and entail slavery, are treated with very little respect. Considering that the subject is not altogether of a poetical cast, the author has managed it with a good deal of address; and if the flowers of poesy are less profusely scattered here, than in some other of his productions, this deficiency is in part at least atoned for, by the truly independent and patriotic spirit, which breathes through the whole poem.

We take pleasure in noticing the beautiful manner in which this volume is printed; it is highly creditable to the Washington press, and we could wish to see it made an example for printers in that quarter, as well as in some others.

3.—1. *Collections of the New York Historical Society, for the Year* 1826. Vol. IV. pp. 308. Being a Continuation of Smith's History of New York by the same Author.

2. *History of the State of New York.* By Joseph W. Moulton. *Part II. Novum Belgium.* New York. Bliss & White.

There is hardly such a thing, as a good history of any of the American Colonies before the Revolution. Those, which are respectable as narratives of events, are exceedingly deficient in the most important branches of history, philosophical and political research. Before the Revolution, indeed, no good history could be written, for events had not so far unfolded themselves, as to enable the historian to detect their bearings and relations towards the great issue of the independence of the colonies. Such a history might now be written, if all the materials could be collected; but here again a serious difficulty arises. The best materials are in great part lost, except such as have been preserved in the office of Trade and Plantations, in London.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

It is very probable that many of the most valuable may be there. In the archives of the different States may be found the remnants of the old Journals of Assembly, or, as they were commonly called, 'Votes and Proceedings,' and also Journals of the Councils. But these are often dry and meagre as historical records, particularly the latter. The original orders and decrees of the government in England, and especially the correspondence with the governors of the Colonies, are materials of greater importance than all others; yet an exceedingly small part only of the papers of this description is now to be found in this country. Till copies of them shall be obtained from England, a full and accurate colonial history can never be written.

The materials in New York are as abundant, perhaps, as in any other state, yet very few remain of the kind here mentioned. The series of Dutch records, recently translated into English by Mr Vanderkemp, amounts to twentyfour manuscript folio volumes, embracing the period between the years 1638 and 1674. The 'Council Minutes' in manuscript are comprised in twentyfive folio volumes, extending from 1683 to 1775, with a few broken records afterwards, during the time the British held possession of the city of New York. The Journals of the Colonial Assemblies have been printed. Gaines's edition is a valuable work, in two large volumes, the first printed in 1764, and the other in 1776, embracing together the period between 1691 and 1775, the end of the colonial government. The papers in the Secretary's office relating to the Revolution are very full, till the close of the year 1777. After the new government was formed, near the end of that year, George Clinton was chosen governor, and the executive papers from that time during the war have never been returned to the public archives. The Minutes of the Proceedings of the first committee of safety in New York, of the subsequent Conventions, Provincial Congress, intermediate committees of safety, and of the Convention, that formed the Constitution of the State in 1777, are carefully copied out, and bound in ten folio volumes. These records have never been printed. When the new government went into operation, the Journals of Assembly and Senate were printed, and have thus been continued ever since. A valuable selection might be made for publication from the early minutes, particularly the proceedings of the Convention, which formed the Constitution. All the papers above mentioned have been collected, and are preserved with remarkable care in the Secretary's office. The State has made liberal appropriations for this purpose, as well as for reprinting the Journal of the Assembly, during the interesting period between the years 1766 and 1776. It only remains now to print a judicious selection

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

from the minutes of the early committees, provincial Congresses, and Conventions.

Smith's well known 'History of New York' was first published in the year 1756. The style is plain and the narrative perspicuous. The author in his preface calls it a *narrative*, and adds, 'it deserves not the name of history, though for brevity's sake I have given it that title; it presents only a regular thread of simple facts.' This is a just description of its character, and the work answers fully to the author's own opinion of it. He seldom goes aside to look for remote causes, or pursue consequences, or engage in political discussions. The great questions, which were always agitated more or less under some form, between the mother country and the colonies, and which at last produced a separation, he seldom touches. What we now want in the way of history is, that the state of these questions, interwoven with the narrative, should be traced step by step from the very beginning, and the gradual changes in popular institutions, feelings, and habits distinctly marked, till the great crisis of the assertion of independence. When such a history shall be written, it will be seen that the principles of freedom and self government were brought hither by the first colonists, and that they never ceased to be active, and to increase in energy and effect, till they came to their result in breaking the bonds of union, or rather the chains of servitude. It will be seen, that the American Revolution began with American colonization.

Smith's History, as published by himself, reaches from the first discovery of New York to the year 1732. An edition was published in Albany twelve years ago, which professes on the title page to be accompanied with a 'continuation from the year 1732, to the commencement of the year 1814;' but which does not in reality come down later than 1747. A short apology appears in the conclusion, and a promise that 'at some future day the chasm will be supplied in a manner worthy of the subject.' We believe that 'future day' has never come. This is the less to be regretted, however, since a continuation by the original author has now been brought before the public by the New York Historical Society. It is numbered as the fourth volume of the Society's Collections. After publishing his first work, Smith, it seems, wrote a continuation of his history down to the year 1762, which has remained in manuscript till lately, in the hands of his son, William Smith, who resides in Canada, and is one of his Majesty's Council for that province. By this gentleman the manuscript has lately been presented for publication to the Society. It is in all respects worthy of the patronage of that body, and is a valuable acquisition to the historical literature of the country. We

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

shall forbear any further remarks at present, as we intend to take some future opportunity to recur to this volume with a view to the celebrated Convention, which met at Albany in 1754 to devise a plan of union for the colonies. There are points of history connected with that event, which have a claim to more notice than any writer has yet given them.

About two years ago, a volume was printed in New York, entitled, 'History of the State of New York, including its Aboriginal and Colonial Annals; by John V. N. Yates, and Joseph W. Moulton.' This purports to be the first part of the first volume, and Mr Moulton has recently issued the second part, the title of which we have copied at the beginning of this notice. His plan is comprehensive, it being his 'design to comprise, within four or five volumes, the History of the Colony and the State to the era of its Canal policy.' This second part, we suppose, completes the first volume, and it brings us down to the year 1633, about twentyfour years after the discovery of Hudson's river, through a region, which he calls the 'terra incognita' of New York history. It certainly is dark, and not the most delightsome to the traveller; but a cloudy morning often precedes a bright day, and it is reasonable to expect, that Mr Moulton's future labors may afford more entertainment, if not more instruction, to his readers. We would gladly stipulate one thing with him however, which is, that, when he publishes another volume, he will bethink himself of a table of contents, an index, or some contrivance for guiding us to such parts as we may have a particular fancy to consult, without our being compelled to look through all his chapters to gain our object, and then perhaps in vain. Mr Moulton quotes authorities, it may be, more frequently than is necessary; but it is much better to be in the extreme on this side than the other. He gives evidence incontestible of his industry, and of his deep research into all the parts of his subject. On the general character of his work, and the success of its execution, it would seem not proper to comment, till he has advanced further in his enterprise. He must guard against such minuteness and prolixity as will become tedious; nobody reads a dull history.

We ought not to omit to state here, that Dr Samuel Miller once contemplated writing a history of New York, and made considerable progress in collecting his materials. Other pursuits diverted his attention from this project, but the fruits of his inquiries, as far as they were pursued, he deposited in the library of the New York Historical Society, of which he was an early and active member.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

4.—*New Ideas on Population; with Remarks on the Theories of Malthus and Godwin. Second Edition. To which is prefixed a New Preface, containing a brief Examination of the Opinions of MM. Say and Sismondi on the same subject.* By Alexander H. Everett. 8vo. pp. 125. Boston. Cummings, Hilliard, & Co.

The first edition of this work was largely reviewed in our Journal, its principles stated, and its main positions defended. [See Vol. XVII, for October, 1823]. To the general considerations and arguments there advanced, in explanation of the objects and merits of the work, nothing more needs to be added. In his Preface to this second edition, Mr Everett has examined at some length the opinions of Say and Sismondi, which run counter in some respects to his own views, and to what he believes important truths in political economy.

The eminent talents of Mr Malthus have given currency to a curious theory, or rather paradox, concerning population. This author supposes it to be a law, in the economy of human existence, that 'population tends to increase geometrically and food arithmetically, and that of course the former is always pressing on the latter.' This mathematical proposition Mr Malthus has set himself to demonstrate in various ways, and he draws from it very important conclusions, as affecting the organization, progress, and condition of society. He holds, that there is a perpetual tendency to starvation in the world, on account of the unceasing operation of the law, which is striving to multiply mouths to devour food faster than the labor and ingenuity of man can gather it from the productions of the earth. In this mischievous law he sees the germs of the hosts of evils which afflict humanity. He would banish the evils by circumventing the law; he would save the world from poverty, privation, and the sufferings that grow out of them, by putting a check to this law of increase, in discouraging the goodly custom of marriage, which from time immemorial has been so much in vogue with all the world. He judges rightly that the smaller the number of people born, the fewer there will be to suffer; and, to keep up a proper balance, he would make it the duty of governments to take care, that no more than the right number should be born. So much for the theory; next for the consequences. According to Mr Malthus's doctrine, it is quite a false exercise of humanity to build up institutions for the aid of the poor, or to dispense charity of any sort to relieve privation and sufferings, which spring from want, or inability to procure the means of a comfortable subsistence. Such misplaced philanthropy is in fact an injury to society, by keeping

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

up an excess of devouring population, which has somehow forced itself upon the world, when there was no possibility that its demands could be supplied. Genuine benevolence would cut off this excresence, or at least leave it to waste itself away. There are also political consequences, which we have not time to pursue.

To common minds this theory would seem ludicrous enough, were it not supported by grave philosophers, and writers deep in the science of political economy. To confute this doctrine on the fair ground of argument, and to establish the contrary, is the object of Mr Everett's tract; that is, he undertakes to prove, that there is no such tendency in population, as Mr Malthus contends for; that the means of support will always be adequate to the numbers to be supported; that poverty and want depend on other causes than the pressure of population; they depend on local circumstances, on the ability and skill of individuals, fertility of soil, commercial advantages, virtues and vices, political and social institutions. Take these circumstances into consideration and there will be no difficulty in accounting for all the misery in the world; and these would still exist, even supposing population to be checked in any given ratio. Mr Everett's arguments are triumphant, and amount to a complete demonstration. As a specimen of a clear philosophical style, and elegant ratiocination, we know of no treatise on any of the branches of political economy, which can be read with more satisfaction than this. The new preface will furnish a good deal of interesting matter to those who have seen only the first edition.

5.—*The Cause of Education in Tennessee; an Address delivered to the Young Gentlemen admitted to the Degree of Bachelor of Arts, in Cumberland College, at the Anniversary Commencement, October 4th* 1826. By Philip Lindsley, D. D. President of the College. 8vo. pp. 36. Nashville, Tennessee.

We have before had occasion to examine some of President Lindsley's views of education, and to express our high commendation of them. The same practical good sense and close investigation, the same zeal for improving the systems of teaching, appear in this Address, as in his former publication; and we are glad to observe, that all reasonable success attends his exertions in the present important sphere of his action.

The direct object of the Address, to which our attention is now drawn, was to give suitable counsel to the young gentlemen

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

of Cumberland College in Nashville, who had just completed their academic course; and the President took this opportunity to make a few remarks generally on the subject of education, and particularly on the means of instruction in Tennessee. His aim is chiefly to suggest the best modes of improvement, both in regard to common schools and higher institutions. In reference to the former of these he uses the following language.

'How important then to human happiness is it, that the first school—the infant school—the parental school—should be a good one. Here is the great nursery of human weal or woe. Now, I care not whether children ever go to a public school or not, if parents will keep a better school at home, and do their duty to their offspring. I care not whether our youth go to college or not, if parents can and will teach them more effectually by their own firesides. But, unfortunately, the great mass of parents have shown themselves but sorry instructers and faithless guides to those who ought to be dearer to them than their own lives. They are themselves, in general, too ignorant, to say no more, to do much. Hence, in our day, INFANT SCHOOLS have been established in many places, to supply this radical defect. And report speaks well of them wherever they have been tried. How far it may be practicable or beneficial to introduce them into our country, except in large towns or manufactories, I shall not stop to inquire.

'In order to furnish the community at large with the next best aid to parental instruction, and as a substitute for it, after the first period of infancy, COMMON SCHOOLS prefer the strongest claims to our regard. We hear a great deal, at the present day, about *common schools;* and one would imagine that they had already become the favorites of the people. If so, then the cause of liberty and virtue has gained much in our land, and we need not despair of the republic. Upon this ground we can all meet and harmoniously cooperate. In this grand enterprise, all the advocates of colleges in our country will go hand in hand with the humblest of the people, not merely in declaiming about the necessity and importance of common schools, but in organizing and putting into practieal operation the best system that can be devised. I have no fears that any of the alumni of Cumberland College will ever prove recreant or backward in this good work.

'Common Schools, then, are needed in Tennessee. How shall they be established? Let the people decide. What character and form shall they assume? Let every county be divided into such a number of school districts or departments as will conveniently accommodate all the inhabitants. Erect comfortable and commodious school houses. Attach to each school house a lot of

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ten acres of land, for the purpose of healthful exercise, gardening, farming, and the mechanical arts. For the body requires training as well as the mind. Besides, as multitudes must live by manual labor, they ought betimes to acquire habits of industry, economy, temperance, hardihood, muscular strength, skill, and dexterity. Employ teachers qualified to govern and instruct children in the best possible manner. Pay them according to their merit. Pay any sum necessary to command the services of the best and most accomplished teachers. Parsimony in this particular is not only impolitic; it is mean, it is absurd, it is ruinous. Better have no teachers, than to have incompetent, immoral, lazy, passionate, or indiscreet ones; however cheaply they may be procured. Their influence will not be merely negative; it will be positive and most powerful. I have often looked with horror upon the kind of common schools and teachers to which thousands of children, during several of their best years, are cruelly and wantonly subjected in the older States. But it is or was the fashion, in many places, to hire a blockhead or vagabond, because he would teach a child for a dollar and twentyfive cents per quarter! Now, if there be anything on earth for which a parent ought to feel disposed to pay liberally, it is for the faithful instruction of his children. Compared with this, every other interest vanishes like chaff before the wind—it is less than nothing. And yet, unless the world has suddenly grown much wiser, there is no service so grudgingly and pitifully rewarded. The consequence is what might have been expected. Every man of cleverness and ambition will turn his back with scorn upon the country school. He will become a lawyer, a physician, a merchant, a mechanic, a farmer, or a farmer's overseer, in preference. Until school keeping be made an honorable and a lucrative profession, suitable teachers will never be forthcoming in this free country.'

pp. 9, 10.

These observations, on the character and qualifications of teachers, have peculiar weight. In nothing are we so deficient in our New England schools, as in good teachers. Nine times out of ten, we venture to say, the cheapest man has the preference. By this most ill judged parsimony the standard of school keeping is kept down; men of talents and high qualifications seek for better employment. Thus the schools fall into the hands of a class of persons, who are more fit to be pupils than teachers. The man, whose recommendation is, that he will teach cheaper than any body else, is the very last man that should be employed. He, who values his own services at little, will do little, and that badly. The effect of this is a thousand times worse in teaching, than in any other employment. A clumsy mechanic may make a

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

clumsy piece of workmanship, or may spoil it entirely; and there will be the end of it; nobody needs buy or use it. But when the children of a school are subjected to his tutoring, and the mischief he inflicts, from his ignorance and inaptitude, is on the mind, the evil is irreparable. Such workers of ruin should be avoided, and turned over to pursuits in which at least they can do no harm. Legislative aid in favor of education is wanted in nothing so much at present, as in providing some means for creating a better supply of teachers in the common schools.

In speaking of the general advantages of an enlightened education, President Lindsley has the following just remarks on its influence politically considered, and as aiding the cause of freedom and good government.

'Now there can be no better or stronger evidence in favor of the general beneficial tendency of learning, however obtained, than the fact, that, whenever, in ancient or modern times, endeavors have been made to procure liberty to a people, and wherever it has been acquired, those endeavors were made, and that acquisition secured, by men of superior knowledge. Such is the language of history from Moses to Bolivar. And among the most enlightened philanthropists on the continent of Europe at this moment, the grand cause of their discouragement and despair in regard to liberty, is, that the people are too ignorant to be entrusted with liberty; and hence they feel constrained to remain inactive. They fain would give instruction to the people, in order to prepare and qualify them for free and liberal institutions, would their masters permit them.

'When our fathers commenced their almost hopeless controversy with the mother country; who were the kindred spirits attracted to our shores and to our aid by the native charms and legitimate claims of liberty? Not the degraded serf or feudal slave—not the illiterate farmer or mechanic—but such men as might have adorned the proudest court in Christendom—men of whom their own country was unworthy—men who understood the full import of the glorious cause to which they were ready to sacrifice titles, and honors, and fortune, and life;—they were Pulaski, Steuben, De Kalb, Kosciusko, La Fayette.

'And who, allow me to ask my republican auditors, or, if they please, to remind them of what, purchance, they may have forgotten—who were the prompters, the mainsprings, the leaders of our memorable Revolution? The answer to the question is upon every schoolboy's tongue. He will recount a catalogue of patriots who, for profound knowledge and practical wisdom, were never surpassed in any age or country. Such were the friends of our own liberties, at a time too, when they were not only stigma-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

tized as rebels, but were in hourly danger of being hanged as rebels. They were the master spirits who aroused the people to resistance. They were honest men, and they united in promoting the permanent welfare of their country. Happily, the people, having been generally educated at common schools, were sufficiently informed to comprehend their rights, when those rights were ably explained to them, and wise enough to be guided by their superiors in wisdom. But had the intelligent, the learned colonists of those days combined with the English aristocracy in maintaining the ancient government in all its plans of oppression, the people would never have thought of a Revolution. Had they been enlisted on the side of the British ministry, we had this day been the loyal subjects of his majesty, George the Fourth.

pp. 14, 15.

The account of Cumberland College contained in this Address, and of the improvements proposed, exhibits that institution under a very encouraging aspect. The effects of the energy and zeal of the President appear in these, as well as of the liberal and active cooperation of the trustees. The author states, that

'The trustees of Cumberland College have purchased one hundred and twenty acres of land to meet the various purposes of their contemplated university. It is proposed immediately to commence the erection of a series of buildings for the accommodation of students, instructers, and stewards; consisting of five additional colleges, each sufficiently commodious for a hundred students and three assistant professors or tutors, and of seven houses for as many principal or head professors. We shall then have six colleges, and twentyfive instructers, and accommodations for six hundred pupils. To each college will be attached a refectory or boarding house, with eight or ten acres of land for gardening and exercise. The colleges will be erected at such distances from each other as to prevent the usual evils resulting from the congregation of large numbers of youth at the same place. Professors will occupy houses on the intervening lots; and there will be at least three officers resident within the walls of each college. We shall thus have six distinct and separate families, so far as regards domestic economy, internal police, and social order; while one *Senatus Academicus* will superintend and control the whole.

'Gardens and mechanics' shops will be interspersed among the various edifices, in such manner as to be easily accessible to all the youth for improvement and recreation. Whenever the present ground shall be thus occupied, it will be necessary to procure fifty or a hundred acres more, for a model or experimental farm; that

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

agriculture, the noblest of sciences and the most important of the useful arts, may be thoroughly studied and practised. At a future period, or as soon as the means can be obtained, other suitable edifices, both useful and ornamental, may be erected. The plan admits of indefinite extension; and in proportion to its enlargement, its advantages will be increased, while the expense of its maintenance will be diminished.

'In order to execute our present design, only about $200,000 will be required.' pp. 25, 26.

'The average number of students in the regular classes of Cumberland College, during the past year has been between seventy and eighty. These classes are so divided and subdivided, for the purpose of study and recitation, that every individual is enabled and constrained to advance according to his actual ability. Such a variety in their studies and pursuits is provided, as to promote cheerful exertion, without distracting or confusing the mind. There are only two vacations in the year—consisting of five and a half weeks each—the one commencing on the first Wednesday in April, and the other on the first Wednesday in October. There are no intermediate holidays; and no vacation is allowed to the senior class, previously to graduation, as is customary in other colleges. As there are no honors or prizes to animate a few to extraordinary efforts, and to discourage the majority altogether, so the whole are very desirous to avail themselves of every privilege up to the last moment of their collegiate life; and they find no difficulty in preparing appropriate exercises for the public Commencement.

'In the Preparatory Grammar School, attached to the college, there are, at this time, about ninety pupils.' p. 36.

Let the generous enthusiasm of President Lindsley, on the subject of education, prevail generally in Tennessee, and let the community second his ardent efforts, and the time will soon come, when nothing will be left to desire in the modes and means of teaching in that State.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

6.—1. *History of the United States, from their first Settlement as Colonies to the Cession of Florida, in the year* 1821. By William Grimshaw. Revised edition, stereotyped. 12mo. pp. 307. Philadelphia. John Grigg.

2. *History of England, from the first Invasion of Julius Cæsar, to the Accession of George the Fourth, in the year* 1820. By William Grimshaw. Stereotyped Edition. 12mo. pp. 292. Philadelphia. John Grigg.

3. *The Grecian History, from the earliest State to the Death of Alexander the Great, by Dr Goldsmith; Revised and Corrected, and a Vocabulary of Proper Names appended.* By William Grimshaw. 12mo. pp. 322. Philadelphia.

4. *An Etymological Dictionary and Expositor of the English Language, containing the Radicals and Definitions of Words derived from the Greek, Latin, and French Languages; and all the Technical and Polite Phrases adopted from the French and Latin.* By William Grimshaw. Second Edition. 12mo. Philadelphia.

Till very lately our schools have been poorly supplied with suitable books of history, particularly the history of our own country. This important branch of study has been neglected to a degree hardly to be accounted for, not only in our subordinate schools, but in the academies and colleges. There are few things of which the American youth are more ignorant, than the history of this country. Nine times in ten they can tell you more about the fabulous ages of antiquity, the first settlements of Greece and Rome, and the heroic exploits of Greek and Roman warriors, than they can of what was done two hundred years ago to colonize the new world, or of the events attending the progress of these northern colonies, or of the great deeds by which our independence was established. We ascribe this apathy and ignorance in a good degree to the want of books suited to early instruction. This defect is beginning to be remedied by various works of this kind. Within a few years several histories of America, and histories of the United States, have appeared, purporting to be designed for schools; and a future generation may be expected to be wiser and more learned in these matters than we of the present day.

Among the elementary books of American history, we do not remember to have seen any one more deserving approbation than Mr Grimshaw's 'History of the United States,' embracing the period from the first settlement of the colonies, to the year 1821. It is a small volume, and a great deal of matter is brought into a

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

narrow space; but the author has succeeded so well in the construction of his periods, and the arrangement of his materials, that perspicuity is rarely sacrificed to brevity. The chain of narrative is skilfully preserved, and the author's reflections are frequently such, as make the facts more impressive, and lead the youthful mind to observe causes and consequences, which might otherwise have been overlooked. As a school book it may justly be recommended.

What has been said of this volume will apply generally to the two other historical works, whose titles we have copied. They are each nearly of the same size as the one just noticed, and designed for the same object, that is, the use of classes in schools. The 'History of England' is an original composition, but the 'Grecian History' is an abridgment from Dr Goldsmith. All these books are accompanied with very full and well digested tables of questions for the benefit of pupils, and also with keys to the same for the convenience of teachers.

The 'Etymological Dictionary' is a small volume, of which the title gives a very good account. Like the other books it is intended for schools and young persons. Etmology is a study of great utility in forming a knowledge of the structure and use of language; and Mr Grimshaw has so arranged this work, by selecting the roots of words and attaching to these the etymology and definitions. as to exhibit the subject in a condensed view, and at the same time afford every desirable facility for easy acquisition.

7.—1. *Atlantis. Journal des Neuesten und Wissenswürdigsten aus dem Gebiete der Politik, Geschichte, Geographie, Statistik, Culturgeschichte und Literatur der nord und südamerikanischen Reiche, mit Einschluss des westindischen Archipelagus.*—Herausgegeben von Eduard Florens Rivinus, in Philadelphia. Leipzig, 1826. J. C. Hinrichssche Buchhandlung. Nos. I. & II. pp. 208 & 192.

Atlantis. Journal of the latest and most interesting Facts relating to the Politics, History, Geography, Statistics, General Improvement, and Literature of North and South America, including the West Indies. Edited by Edward Florens Rivinus, Philadelphia. Published by J. C. Heinrich. Leipzig. 1826.

2. *La Revue Américaine; Journal Mensuel.* 8vo. pp. 159. No. I. Paris.

We are very glad, on several accounts, to see the establishment of works of this kind, which appear, as far as we have yet had

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

opportunity to examine them, to be edited with talent and a real desire of usefulness. The want of correct information in Europe, with regard to the progress of events and the actual state of affairs in America, has been productive of many evils, which can be removed by no other means perhaps so well, as by periodical accounts of what is taking place among us. In the first place, we have the presumption to believe, in common, we suppose, with the majority of our countrymen, that the nations of the continent might learn something beneficial to themselves, from the study of our political institutions, and of the history of their establishment. They might learn, if they could give attention to the subject, that the excesses and horrors of the French revolution are by no means chargeable upon the principles or the example of America; that republicanism does not mean anarchy, nor the want of a court imply the absence of government. Rulers might learn, that they would but advance their own interests, by consulting those of their people; and subjects might be convinced, that some authority must be established over them, and that something of their natural rights must be exchanged for the advantages of society.

We believe it would occasion some surprise to many a European admirer of liberty, even among those who esteem themselves well informed, to be told, that there is any limit at all, in this country, to our liberty of action, any restraint whatever imposed by law. To many it would be strange news that we pay any taxes, support any poor, or have any prisons. This ignorance is by no means without its consequences. The tendency ascribed to liberal opinions is used as a reason for binding still closer the fetters of despotism, and many a disappointed emigrant has bewailed the false hopes, which induced him to abandon the home of his fathers. We know of no better mode of dissipating these delusions, than the dissemination of correct information, by means of such periodical publications as the *Atlantis*, and the *Revue Américaine*, the one published in Leipzig, and the other in Paris. The design of these works, and the mode of effecting this design, are almost precisely the same. A selection from the most interesting public documents, and a brief account of events possessing a general or important influence either in our own republic or the more youthful ones of South America, is given in each, and with so much fairness and correctness, as to be highly honorable to the conductors of both.

We think, however, that the German Review, if we may so call it, has the advantage in having an editor in this country, who can judge for himself of the relative importance of occurrences, and discern the real from the apparent causes and conse-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

quences of events, with more accuracy than any one at a distantance can be supposed to do. He is also freed from the influence of the European style of thinking, upon political subjects, which, however correct it may be in what concerns themselves and their own mutual relations, is very often erroneous when applied to America. There is a certain set of political opinions, which, in Europe, have come to be considered established by experience as axioms, but to which the experience of this country offers little or nothing analogous; those who are surrounded by one school can hardly appreciate with fairness the lessons of the other.

We have referred to the advantages to be derived by Europe, from a better knowledge of the character of our institutions; but the benefit of this knowledge will by no means be confined to that side of the Atlantic. It will produce very favorable effects upon ourselves to be aware, that our acts are observed, and our character understood abroad. We may cease to be so captiously tenacious of our rank as a nation, and so boastful of the progress we have made, when we find others not unwilling to allow them. And the consciousness that all our proceedings are vigilantly watched, may render us more careful of our reputation and more attentive to the consequences of our national conduct, than we have hitherto been. Thus far we have regarded the point merely, or principally, in its bearing upon ourselves; but now that our relations are extended, and that the knowledge of us is to be spread abroad by works like those we have noticed, it will become us to take care of our European reputation, and to look with wide circumspection upon the consequences of all we do or omit. With these views, we cannot but wish well to every effort of the kind, and we believe the period has now arrived when works like the *Atlantis* and the *Revue Américaine* will meet with deserved approbation and success. Both of these Journals are sent out in a handsome style. The *Revue Américaine*, in particular, is more neatly executed than any other from France, which we have seen. Every American will hope for the prosperity of these enterprises.

8.—1. *The Atlantic Souvenir; a Christmas and New Year's Offering*. Philadelphia. 1827. Carey & Lea. pp. 360.
2. *The Memorial; a Christmas and New Year's Offering*. Boston. True & Green. pp. 268.

The publishers of the Atlantic Souvenir deserve great praise, for having been the first to prepare, from native materials only, a

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

work similar to those beautiful little gift-books, which are so common in England and on the continent. Nor was their imitation a feeble one. They advanced at once to a high degree of excellence, both as it respects the literary merit and the embellishment of their offering. The appearance of a second volume is proof that the public have encouraged their enterprise as it deserved; indeed, they acknowledge in their Preface, that they have met with flattering success. We cordially wish them joy, and a continuance of patronage.

We observe with pleasure, that there are not only more engravings of American scenery in this volume than in the last, but that they are executed in a better style. The view of New York is engraved by Maverick as well as we could wish. Trenton Falls and Passaic Falls by Ellis, are also well done; but he has succeeded in the latter of these better than in the former. The water of Trenton Falls, especially where it is tumbling and boiling below, is hard and stiff. Imagination, by Ellis; the Lady and the Merlin, by Longacre; and the Legend of the Grisons, by Humphrys, are beautiful. Longacre has also engraved the Infant Napoleon pretty well, after a statue of Canova's in the Pennsylvania Academy; but the boy is rather clumsy, and the marble is too dark.

We are convinced from these, and the two other specimens in the volume, that our engravers need nothing but practice and patronage to carry them to the highest honors of their delightful art. Patronage and practice will of course go together, for the one will secure the other. For this reason, we regard the Souvenir not merely as a pretty book for a New Year's present to one's friend, but as a means of exciting public attention to the fine arts, as an encouragement to our painters and engravers, and as a pledge of future excellence in a department of art which has hitherto been greatly neglected. The American pencil and the American burine ought to be more devoted than they have been to American scenery. We have talked enough about our scenery; and we have often talked about it in a boastful, bragging manner, as if we were either afraid that the inhabitants of other countries should think we lived in a desert, or were of opinion that we had got all the masterpieces of nature to ourselves. Sufficient declamation has gone forth about our noble lakes, rivers, and cataracts, our ancient forests, and our picturesque villages. It is time that we should send the portraits of some of these things to those foreigners who cannot come here to see them face to face. It is time that correct and finished illustrations of our scenery were published. It is time that our wealthy men encouraged such designs, and that a public taste for them was cul-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

tivated. All countries have fine scenery. The beauties and glories of nature are liberally scattered through the world. There is no doubt that we have our portion of them. There is no doubt that nature with us is sublime and fair. Let art then be enabled to go on frequent pilgrimages to her shrine, and offer his homage worthily. Let the sketch book and portfolio be seen more frequently among our solitudes. Let the tools of the engraver be employed on something else beside door plates and visiting cards.

It is chiefly on account of our desire to see the improvement of art and taste among us, that we hope that the publishers of the Souvenir, and of all similar works, may always receive ample remuneration from the public, so that they in turn may amply remunerate the artists in their employment, and stimulate them to a cheerful and vigorous exertion of their powers.

Respecting the literary merit of the present volume of the Souvenir, we shall only observe, that it does not fall below the standard to which the last attained. Paulding is here again with his eccentricity and humor; and Miss Sedgwick affords us the pleasure of reading another of her interesting and elegantly written narratives. Not much of the poetry rises above mediocrity. Percival's piece, which we give below, entitled 'To the Eagle,' is perhaps the best.

'Bird of the broad and sweeping wing!
Thy home is high in heaven,
Where wide the storms their banners fling,
And the tempest clouds are driven.
Thy throne is on the mountain top;
Thy fields—the boundless air;
And hoary peaks, that proudly prop
The skies—thy dwellings are.

Thou sittest, like a thing of light,
Amid the noontide blaze:
The midway sun is clear and bright—
It cannot dim thy gaze.
Thy pinions, to the rushing blast
O'er the bursting billow spread,
Where the vessel plunges, hurry past,
Like an angel of the dead.

Thou art perched aloft on the beetling crag,
And the waves are white below,
And on, with a haste that cannot lag,
They rush in an endless flow.
Again, thou hast plumed thy wing for flight
To lands beyond the sea,
And away, like a spirit wreathed in light,
Thou hurriest wild and free.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Thou hurriest over the myriad waves,
And thou leavest them all behind;
Thou sweepest that place of unknown graves,
Fleet as the tempest wind.
When the night-storm gathers dim and dark,
With a shrill and a boding scream,
Thou rushest by the foundering bark,
Quick as a passing dream.

Lord of the boundless realm of air!
In thy imperial name,
The hearts of the bold and ardent dare,
The dangerous path of fame.
Beneath the shade of thy golden wings
The Roman legions bore,
From the river of Egypt's cloudy springs,
Their pride, to the polar shore.

For thee they fought, for thee they fell,
And their oath was on thee laid;
To thee the clarions raised their swell,
And the dying warrior prayed.
Thou wert, through an age of death and fears,
The image of pride and power,
Till the gathered rage of a thousand years
Burst forth in one awful hour.

And then, a deluge of wrath it came,
And the nations shook with dread;
And it swept the earth, till its fields were flame,
And piled with the mingled dead.
Kings were rolled in the wasteful flood,
With the low and crouching slave;
And together lay, in a shroud of blood,
The coward and the brave.

And where was then thy fearless flight?—
"O'er the dark mysterious sea,
To the lands that caught the setting light,
The cradle of Liberty.
There, on the silent and lonely shore,
For ages, I watched alone,
And the world, in its darkness, asked no more,
Where the glorious bird had flown.

But then came a bold and hardy few,
And they breasted the unknown wave;
I caught afar the wandering crew;
And I knew they were high and brave.
I wheeled around the welcome bark,
As it sought the desolate shore;
And up to heaven, like a joyous lark,
My quivering pinions bore.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

And now that bold and hardy few,
Are a nation wide and strong,
And danger and doubt I have led them through,
And they worship me in song ;
And over their bright and glancing arms,
On field and lake and sea,
With an eye that fires, and a spell that charms,
I guide them to victory." '

'The Memorial' is a volume of the same kind as the Souvenir, which was prepared in Boston at a short notice, and which reflects credit on the diligence and taste of the editor and publishers. We hope that these works will not interfere with the sale of each other; and we do not believe that they will. There ought to be abundant support for both. Though a handsome book, the Memorial cannot vie in beauty with the Souvenir. The engravings in it are few, and not very well executed. Its literary contents, however, may come into competition with those of the Philadelphia publication. The prose may not be quite so good, but the poetry is better. From this department we select a specimen of more than common beauty, entitled, 'On the Axe with which Anna Boleyn was beheaded, still exhibited in the Tower of London.'

'Stern minister of fate severe!
Who, drunk with beauty's blood,
Defying time, dost linger here,
And frown with ruffian visage drear,
Like beacon on destruction's flood—
Say! when ambition's giddy dream
First lured thy victim's heart aside,
Why, like a serpent, didst thou hide
'Mid clustering flowers, and robes of pride,
Thy warning gleam?
Hadst thou but *once* arisen in visage dread,
From glory's fearful cliff, her startled step had fled.

Ah! little she reck'd when St Edward's crown
So heavily press'd her tresses fair,
That with sleepless wrath its thorns of care
Would rankle within her couch of down.
To the tyrant's bower
In her beauty's power,
She came, as a lamb to the lion's lair,
As the light bird cleaves the fields of air,
And carols blythe and sweet, while treachery weaves its snare.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Think! what were her pangs as she traced her fate,
On that changeful monarch's brow of hate?
What were the thoughts which in misery's hour,
Throng'd o'er her soul in her dungeon-tower?
Regret, with pencil keen,
Retouch'd the deepening scene;
Delightful France, whose genial skies,
Bade her gay childhood's pleasures rise,
Earl Percy's love,—his youthful grace,
Her gallant brother's fond embrace,
Her stately father's feudal halls,
Where proud heraldic annals deck'd the ancient walls.

Wrapt in the scaffold's gloom,
Brief tenant of that living tomb,
She stands,—the life-blood chills her heart,
And her tender glance from earth does part,
But her infant daughter's image fair,
In the smile of innocence is there,
It clings to her soul 'mid its last despair,
And the desolate queen is doom'd to know,
How far a *mother's* grief transcend's a *martyr's* woe.

Say, did prophetic light,
Illume her darkening sight,
Painting the future island-queen;
Like the fabled bird, all hearts surprising,
Bright from blood-stained ashes rising,
Wise, energic, bold, serene?
Ah no! the scroll of time,
Is seal'd, and hope sublime
Rests but on those far heights which mortals may not climb.

The dying prayer with trembling fervor speeds,
For that false monarch by whose will she bleeds,
For him who listening on that fatal morn,
Hears the death-signal o'er the distant lawn,
From the deep cannon speaking,
Then springs to mirth, and winds his bugle-horn,
And riots while her blood is reeking:
For him she prays, in seraph tone,
"Oh! be his sins forgiven!
Who raised me to an earthly throne,
And sends me now from prison lone,
To be a saint in heaven.

H.'

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

9.—1. *The Classical Reader; a Selection of Lessons in Prose and Verse. From the most esteemed English and American Writers. Intended for the use of the Higher Classes in Public and Private Seminaries.* By Rev. F. W. P. Greenwood and G. B. Emerson. Boston. Lincoln & Edmands. pp. 420.

2. *The Class Book of American Literature; consisting principally of Selections in the Departments of History, Biography, Prose Fiction, Travels, the Drama, Popular Eloquence, and Poetry; from the Best Writers of our own Country. Designed to be used as a Reading Book in American Schools.* By John Frost. Boston.

Books of this description have within a year or two been multiplied amongst us. The earliest in our recollection of a former period, were 'Webster's Third Part,' the 'Columbian Orator,' and the 'American Preceptor.' Notwithstanding the many associations with which the memory of these last is blended, we cannot but acknowledge, that the more recent collections seem to answer the design of such works much better than the earlier. This design is to teach the true art of reading. We say *art*, because reading, in a very just sense, is one. If natural reading be contended for, nothing more can be meant by it than reading correctly without arbitrary rules; and there are individuals, who can so read. These individuals we believe are not many; and to instruct is nothing more nor less than an arbitrary application of the correct and natural method, where this is in a great measure wanting.

If we are required to define the best and most natural method of reading, we should say, that is so, which most nearly approaches the ordinary conversation of an individual. He will speak with most effect, who gives the truest account of the effects which have been produced upon him by the whole external world, and of all the strictly intellectual operations to which they have given rise. And he will read best, whose whole manner of reading shall best correspond with the effects of all these upon himself. It is then as one would relate to another his experiences, or his reflections, that he must read, if the whole effect of reading is to be produced. The question now fairly occurs, Of which of the two periods before referred to, do the works best answer the purpose of teaching this art? and this involves the character and a comparison of the collections of each. In making the comparison, the ages of the individuals for whom the collections are made, are to be borne in mind.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The earlier books were made up principally of declamatory and passionate prose, and of solemn and not unfrequently dull poetry. The Conquest of Canaan, the Vision of Columbus, and verse of the like cast, contributed much to the poetical department, while the prose was principally extracted from the popular political writers of the day, the orations which commemorated the Boston massacre and the fourth of July. Shakspeare, and Milton, and Pope, filled a few pages, and the pathetic and beautiful writings of Mackenzie and Sterne, and of a far inferior school, contributed a share. The patriotism of the day had much influence in the choice from many of these writers. But it was a harsh, though then a commendable patriotism, and produced a style of eloquence, which was anything but good taste, and which it has been the labor of the succeeding years to get rid of as fast as possible. As an objection to the selections from the other writers named, it has been said, that they wanted adaptation to the classes for whom the collections were made, that they did not always supply what was understood, and that what was best comprehended by the reader, was not very frequently felt. These objections might be obviated with ease. But we shall only say, that if these portions were not fully understood, and were badly read, they were still doing something as good, if not better; they were filling the memory of the young from the fullest and best treasuries to which the human intellect has ever contributed, and creating and cherishing a sympathy with the great and the good, which nothing might destroy.

Our later selections for school reading have been made from better sources, and with a better taste. They retain much that was the most valuable in the earlier; particularly extracts from the best of the older English poets, and have added much from more recent authors of the same class. The prose department is especially changed for the better works; of mere temporary interest are rarely used, and the very best of our own country and of Europe only are admitted. There is perhaps less variety than formerly, and grave pieces abound. But these are not really objections, if there be variety enough; and if a moral use may be made of what the work contains, the intelligible and the serious cannot be objected to. Of the works named at the head of this notice, the 'The Classical Reader' appears to us especially to deserve the above commendations. It is selected from the very best authors, and the quantity from each, or the number of pieces of a similar character by different authors, affords all that can be required for classes; and in sufficient variety, too, of manner, to facilitate greatly the formation of correct habits of reading, and a good taste. From each of these considerations we give it our cordial recommendation.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The 'Class Book' has something more in view, than 'to improve youth in the art of elocution.' Another purpose of the work, according to the author, is 'to cherish the love of liberty, of virtue, and our country.' The latter considerations appear to have had a special influence on the author in the choice of his materials, and in part of the title. His work consists of selections 'from the best writers of our own country,' and is 'designed, to be used as a Reading Book in American schools.' Now, however praiseworthy these motives may be in their general application, we are by no means sure, that they will produce their best effects as applied by the author. They have led him to exclude entirely from his work everything, however valuable, which is foreign to our own country. His chief purpose should have been to make the best selection possible from the whole and the best literature of the language, and it has not been left for us to determine what this is or where it is to be found. We may claim some of it, in some departments, but as a whole, and as various as full, we must look for it abroad. Under these impressions, we cannot but say, that we regard the 'Class Book' as less valuable from the voluntary restrictions of the compiler in selecting his materials; and farther, that if we would not only aid by such works to form correct habits in reading, but aim also to affect vividly and permanently the minds of the young, and excite in them the perception and enjoyment of the sublime and beautiful in our literature, our selections must always be made from the whole and the best of that literature.

10.—*Report of the Committee on Constitutional Affairs to the Congress of Buenos Ayres, as contained in the 'Mensagero Argentino' of July 6th*, 1826.

The document here mentioned relates to the new form of government, which the Congress of Buenos Ayres have had it in agitation to adopt for the Argentine Provinces. It is well known, that among the different kinds of government, which have prevailed in these provinces, since their release from the tyranny of Spain, none has been attended with complete success. For about two years a Congress, composed of delegates from the provinces, has been in session, for the greater part of the time, in the city of Buenos Ayres, deliberating on the general concerns of the country, and endeavoring especially to institute a constitutional system, which shall meet the views of the people, and attain the desired objects of union, strength, and prosperity.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

As early as April 14th, 1825, the Congress recommended to the Committee on Constitutional Affairs, a speedy preparation of a plan for a constitution; but the committee in their first conferences soon found, that too many difficulties were in the way of their proceeding to arrange any systematic plan, which would be likely to be approved by all the provinces. It was deemed essential, that, as a preliminary step, the opinions of the people on certain important points should be obtained, as far as this could be done. Accordingly on the 20th of June a law was passed, containing the three following directions; first, that application should be made to all the provinces, with a view to ascertain the form of a constitution, which each preferred; secondly, that the mode of obtaining the opinion of the provinces should be through their representative assemblies, and that where such assemblies did not exist, they should be created for the purpose; thirdly, that the opinions thus indicated by the provincial representatives should not in any way restrict the authority delegated by the people to the congress, for preparing and sanctioning a constitution best suited to promote the general interest; and that the right of accepting it should at the same time be preserved to the provinces, in conformity with a previous law.

After waiting a suitable time for returns from the provincial assemblies, the result was, that Córdova, Mendoza, San Juan, and Santiago del Estero, were for having a federal, representative government, or one similar to that of the United States; those of Salta, Tucuman, and Rioja, decided in favor of a representative republican government, but one of a central, consolidated form, like that of Colombia; those of Catamarca, San Luis, and Corrientes expressed no opinion, but confided wholly in the wisdom of the congress; and those of Buenos Ayres, Santa Fe, Entre Rios, Misiones, and the Provincia Oriental, had sent to the congress no opinions, at the time the Report of the Committee on the Constitution was made. By various indications, however, the sense of the people in these last provinces was pretty well known, some of them being for the central, and others for the federative system.

In this stage of the business the Committee on Constitutional Affairs presented a Report to the Congress on the 4th of June last, in which they recommend a central form of government, and support their decision by a series of arguments. Some of these we shall here translate, and, in addition to the general views of the committee on the subject of government, they will convey to our readers a good deal of information respecting the present state of the country. After such preliminary remarks as the subject required, the Committee proceed as follows.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

'In relation to the nature of the government that is most suitable for the provinces of the Union, the people have decidedly and constantly called for the representative republic. This is not one of those momentary opinions, that are for the most part erroneous, and always dangerous; it is the perpetual, deliberate, and permanent wish of the whole nation. The question only turns on the form of administration, and may be accurately couched in these terms; Are these provinces to be governed under a federal, or consolidated form of administration? Will the order, the liberty, and prosperity of the Republic be better maintained, by dividing it into as many states as there are provinces, which, politically leagued under a federal government for the direction of national affairs, may yet reserve to themselves the residuary sovereignty necessary for their own particular management; or by forming all the provinces into one state, consolidated under a central government, and charged with the interior administration of all? Which of these forms will be most proper to organize, preserve, and make happy the Argentine Republic?

'This question at first sight appears very simple, but it is, in truth, exceedingly complex. No form of government has an absolute value; the value of each one is relative to the state of society to which it must be applied. The different kinds of government have been instituted to guaranty to man his rights, and without doubt, that is the best, which best secures them. But, as the form of government, which is proper to secure the rights of the citizen in one society, is not perhaps proper to secure them in another, for each association is composed of different elements, to which its government must be accommodated, it is important to know ours, to feel all its relations, and practically to consider its physical, moral, and political circumstances, in order to arrive at success in the resolution of this great problem.

'Among the physical circumstances of our country, the most remarkable is that which is presented by the thin population of its provinces. Many of those, that bear this name, either have not, or scarcely have fifteen thousand inhabitants, thinly scattered over an extensive surface. The most are poor, and some in extreme poverty. If all have, in the fertility of their respective territories, the ingredients for future riches, at this day they enjoy only scanty productions, which cannot distribute among them a fund of public revenues capable of providing for the first necessities of the community; and will it be prudent to break up the nation into the smallest fractions, with the name of states, when of all these, there can hardly be formed one small republic of five hundred thousand inhabitants? Since the history of the ancient governments, and the experience of the modern, have made us ac-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

quainted with the defects of the turbulent democracy of Athens, the proud aristocracy of Venice, the rigorous monarchy of Russia, it is already a proverb among politicians, that no simple government is good, because simple forms are degraded and vicious. Simple monarchy, for example, is the supremacy of a monarch, who collects all power in himself. Oligarchy is the supremacy of the rich, the noble, the illustrious, who refer every thing to these qualities, at the expense of the oppression of the poor. Democracy is the supremacy of the multitude, who, proud of their numbers and their strength, discard propriety, knowledge, and virtue, and seek to govern in disorder. Mixed forms alone suit modern societies; because separating the vices of each one, they accumulate the good qualities of all. Thus every government, which degenerates too much into a simple form, is dangerous, for it is not compatible with the present state of political societies. Such would be that of federation in the depopulated situation of our provinces. With such a reduced number of inhabitants, they can never maintain a suitable representation; for they must either select it from among every class of men, even those incapable of exercising political rights, or they must concentrate it in the small number of the powerful. The first would terminate in a destructive democracy, the second, in an oppressive oligarchy. But the committee will return to this point, so worthy of the meditation of the legislators to whom the nation has confided her destiny.

'The moral circumstances of the country, are in most open opposition to the form of a federal government. The committee will say nothing of the silent resistance, that may be made to this species of government by habits acquired from ages of subjection to the Spanish government, which was so much further removed from a similar organization, as it was more absolute. They will not insist on the propensity, or instinct, by which at the moment that the provinces shook off the yoke of ancient domination, they were led to identify themselves in unity of government, until the periods of anarchy awoke the idea of federation. Nor yet will they attach much importance to the danger of suddenly abandoning ancient customs, while they prejudice not the desired liberty, or of claiming that new laws should at once form new customs, although nations in their infancy, like men, should leave their cradle with care, and only in proportion to their powers. The committee will only dwell on those more palpable inconveniences which the moral state of the country presents.

'The deficiency of intellectual light among our people, is notorious. If our former provincial capitals maintain some establishment of public education, the smaller towns have none. The

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

great mass of their inhabitants are destitute of that instruction, which a federal government demands for the discharge of public duties. Representative, instead of collective and tumultuary assemblies of the people; the separation and marked distinction of the three powers, legislative, executive, and judiciary; and the balance, by which the legislative departments are counterpoised, are the three grand discoveries which have been made in the art of constituting a free government. Without this essential equilibrium, every government must experience frequent convulsions, as they were suffered by the small republics of Greece, till they reached the period of their entire ruin; and, with this system alone of constitutional balances, England, and the United States of North America, have practically taught the world the mode of establishing and preserving a government free, and, at the same time, tranquil.

'Were our provinces federatively constituted, each one should establish its three powers, legislative, executive, and judicial, should perhaps divide the legislative power into departments, should create the employments, that policy exacts, the system of revenues and the other branches of a regular interior administration; while the most of them have no men who can discharge such duties, nor revenues that can defray their expenses. Here it is that the committee appeal to the practical testimony, the familiar conviction, the consciences of the honorable the Representatives and of all their fellow citizens. Let it be observed how far the provinces have advanced in the six years of their separation. There are some that have not as yet established a permanent assembly. The most are destitute of tribunals of justice; they have no men, who can serve them, nor salaries to support them. Various citizens of Tucuman have claimed the right of bringing appeals in their law suits, to the tribunal of this capital, and an honorable deputy from Santa Fe has evinced similar solicitude before the National Government. It is impossible that, in the nascent state of education and wealth, there could be constituted in each one of our provinces, an interior administration capable of warranting the liberty and rights of the citizens.

'From what they have effected and what has happened in the period since their separation, it is very easy to predict, what will occur in the case of federation. Without powers divided, and independent, the first ambitious man, who may know how to profit by the favor of circumstances, will seize on all public power, and this is insupportable tyranny; or the power will always vibrate between the smallest number of men remarkable for their capacity or riches, and this is a miserable oligarchy; or it will be disputed among ambitious competitors, at the expense of the

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

multitude, unfortunately a mere personal instrument, as has grievously happened in some provinces within our sight.'

'There are not wanting some who affirm, that in the last six years of their separation and independence, the provinces have been predisposed for federal government; but quite the contrary is lamentably the case.' 'Six years have passed; the provinces have held in their hands the elements and power for organizing themselves; yet, with the exception of a few, the most have advanced in nothing, and many have gone backwards in this respect. There are some, who have no institutions, good or bad, and who hear no law but the caprice of him who governs. It is impossible to feign ignorance of the fact, nor is it right longer to conceal it. Let us consult our own conviction; let us hear the clamor of the citizens who suffer; the echo of distress is loud; it penetrates into these precincts, where sits the majesty of the nation, and whence alone thousands of men await the remedy and relief.

'Among other defects, that have originated from the dissolution of the general government, has been the separation of nearly all the cities from their ancient capitals; a separation sustained by an irrevocable resolution to become more united. Many honorable deputies bring decisive instructions from the people on this point. Such a lacerated state of the whole country may be amended by the system of republican unity; but it would be necessary proportionally to mark out the provinces, equalizing the population and the territories, in order to shun the ridiculous metamorphosis of desert fields and wretched people into sovereign states.

'Far from the provinces having been, in their isolated state, predisposed for the form of federal government, there has been felt, on all hands, the necessity of consolidating in one homogeneous mass, the dispersed fractions of the union, bringing them to a common centre of authority. Permanent habits are not contracted in six years of disorder. It is certain, that, in this unfortunate interval, the people incurred the alternative of a servile obedience or an anarchical disobedience. It will not happen thus, as soon as they may place their interests and rights in the hands of the whole nation, who, represented by citizens of her immediate choice, cannot contemn the rights and the necessities of one portion of the people, without contemning those of all; and those that are not as yet capable of governing themselves, will have a safeguard, a certain protection, in the general administration of the Republic.

'If circumstances of a moral nature resist the institution of a federal government, political considerations imperiously oppose it. The two great objects of all political association, are security and

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

liberty; but, as it is impossible to obtain the one, without having first fortified the other, security ought to precede, and prepare for the degrees of liberty, that a nation is capable of enjoying. Security is interior or exterior. The interior security of our republic, can never be sufficiently consulted in a country like ours, of an immense and unpeopled extent, unless by giving to the power of the government, an easy, rapid, and strong action, which can not be had in the complicated and weak organization of the federal system. Exterior security calls all our attention and cares to a neighboring government, monarchical and powerful; which possesses real advantages over us, and, at this very day, makes war against us, to sustain the scandalous usurpation of a large province of our territory; a government, whose pretensions are ancient, and a principal object of whose policy will be, to make these pretensions interminable, and so much the more violent, as our republic may be the weaker.

'The national constitution ought to provide for the preservation of the state in peace, and its greater defence in case of war. Thus, in forming ours, all reasons of policy should carry our consideration to the states that surround us, with whom we are in contact, and must maintain immediate relations. Let us refer to the republics of Colombia, Peru, Bolivia, and Chile, and we shall be admonished that the Argentine Republic should be constituted under a government analogous to those governments with which it must form and maintain a permanent friendship, that suits the interests, the policy, and the general cause of free America. But, as a fatality, prepared in the contingencies of futurity, might disturb the peace, that ought to be perpetual, it is proper to observe that we are surrounded, on the one part, by a powerful empire, and, on the other, by consolidated republics.

'A legislative body may, in certain respects, be compared to a skilful architect, who, though he cannot depart from the plan, that has been given him for the design of the edifice, ought, nevertheless, to form, in his mind, the model of the best, in order to approximate towards it as much as may be possible in the execution. The plan that the provinces have, with mutual consent, given us, is that of a representative republican government, but in relation to the best form of this kind, they are not agreed. The Congress is the architect; it ought to perfect the plan, with that form, which is most congruous to the purposes and objects of its constituents.

'Thus, after having felt the circumstances of the country, consulted our own experience, and profited by the documents, which the history of others presents to us, the Committee do not hesitate to offer to the House, the opinion, which a con-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

science, faithful to its sacred trusts, dictates. The representative republic, consolidated in unity of government, is the only one, which levels, on the one hand, the obstacles already designated, and guaranties, on the other, all social rights, combining the advantages of all free governments, and separating their abuses and defects.

'The Committee would desire, that the Congress, and all citizens, the friends of a practical and rational liberty, would attentively pause on this last expression; for it removes the fears by which it is endeavored to alarm the people against the system of unity. This is not the unity which characterizes absolute governments, in which the universal law, is the single will of one man alone; it is the unity of representation and power, in which the law, that binds all, must emanate from the general will, representative of the rights of all.' 'A representative republican government of unity, certainly renders all these rights safe; under it the nation governs itself; the law, which it dictates, through the medium of its representatives, is its only sovereign, safeguard, and friend; the incapacity of some, is supplied by the capacity of others, and no one portion of the people can lose its liberty, unless it is lost by the whole nation.

'Far from the Committee, is the antisocial thought to establish unity of power to bind the nation and individuals, depriving them of the faculty of providing for their wellbeing. On the contrary, the committee think that, after securing national and individual rights, the constitution should leave in the hands of the provinces themselves, those powers, which they alone, and none better than they, can exercise for the improvement of their physical and moral situation, for the necessary or useful establishments, that they may create, for the enjoyment of their local advantages, in everything that may not be essentially dependent on the general administration of the nation. This central power should be a beneficent power, whose authority may only foster, and never blight the principles of prosperity in each province; like the activity of the sun, which, scattering light and heat through all nature assists, and does not obstruct it, vivifies and fertilizes, that it may germinate, produce, vegetate, and ripen.

'We have, already, practically observed the little, that most of the provinces can effect towards governing themselves in an isolated situation; and we have, as yet, no lesson from experience against the government of unity, which the Committee propose. It is true that the multitude, whose philosophy is uniformly fixed on effects, feeling all the weight of the calamities, with which the country was afflicted, in the governments anterior to the year '20, imputed to forms what ought to be attributed to persons

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

alone; but it is likewise true, that this central power was absolute and abusive, and, at this day, no one can condemn, by practical arguments, the effects of unity of government. If any positive testimony can be opposed, with the appearance of reason, it is the example which is offered us by the federal government of the United States of North America; but no one denies the enormous difference that exists between the circumstances of that country, at the time of its establishment, and those of ours. The thirteen states, which, at the moment of their emancipation, were constitutionally confederated, did not make a perilous and violent transition to a new form of government; they did nothing more than perfect an organization as ancient as their existence. Instruction was there propagated through all the extremities of the territory, and above all, each state was a numerous nation, in respect to our desert provinces.'

Such are the arguments used by the Committee in favor of a central government, in preference to a confederated one. They are specious, but to us they do not appear altogether sound. The recent success of Mexico and Central America, where the population and other circumstances bear a strong resemblance to those of Buenos Ayres, affords a practical confutation of these arguments in the main. Federative systems have been established in those Republics, which have thus far proceeded with harmony, and a good promise of durability. All the Republics will inevitably come to this form at last, and it will be of great advantage to be placed on the true basis as soon as possible.

11.—*Address on Church Music, delivered by request, on the Evening of Saturday, October 7, 1826, in the Vestry of Hanover Church, and on the Evening of Monday following in the Third Baptist Church, Boston.* By Lowell Mason.

This is on the whole a sensible pamphlet, on a much neglected, but interesting subject. We say interesting, for though it is unfortunately too true, that this part of the public religious services of our country is generally esteemed unworthy of the attention and encouragement of the best educated portion of the community; yet it seems to us, that the frequent recurrence of the performance of church music of itself makes it of some importance to society at large. There are indeed those among us, who would degrade this, as well as every other species of musical performance, by treating it as a mere address to the senses. The combinations of language are the only means of addressing their understandings, or of furnishing them with intellectual occupa-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

tion. The cry of grief, uttered by a being incapable of expressing its emotions in articulate sounds, the convulsive sob and the low moan of exquisite suffering, convey to the feelings of such persons no distinct impressions.

Mr Mason's pamphlet, if it has no other tendency than to correct opinions so obviously erroneous, and to excite attention to the subject of church music, will be highly useful; for if it be true, that 'music is only a refined species of elocution, and as such its office is to enforce upon the heart the sentiment which is sung,' all who would have the services of the church attended with the greatest effect, are concerned in the proper performance of this part of them. We, however, are disposed to go farther; we see no good reason for neglecting to make the church attractive, and we have no objection to the use of any means not incompatible with the solemnity of the place and purpose, to draw round the altar the gay, the frivolous, and the profligate. They may go to church indeed, not for the doctrine there, but to listen to the rich harmony of the organ, or the tones of some melodious voice, and yet this motive may not be very much lower than that, which carries to the same consecrated place some of their more insensible neighbors; and it is to be presumed, that none will go there, for whatever reason, who will not be in some degree benefited by the religious exercises. 'Music is said by some of the Fathers to have drawn the Gentiles frequently into the church through mere curiosity; who liked its ceremonies so well, that they were baptized before their departure.' But as Dr Burney, by whom this fact is related, observes, the generality of our parochial music is not likely to produce similar effects; being such as would sooner drive Christians with good ears *out* of the church, than draw Pagans *into it*.

The remedy of the general indifference, which prevails among us, to the improvement of church music, Mr Mason thinks, should be devised and applied by that portion of the religious community technically called *the church*. We do not, however, at once, see the propriety of charging this body exclusively with such a commission. This and every other department of art or science should, it seems to us, be committed to the management of those who are best informed upon the subject; and though we might admit the truth of the maxim, *non posse esse oratorem nisi virum bonum*, we think a man may be a very good psalm singer, though he may not be distinguished for his piety or religious zeal.

Mr Mason condemns, in strong terms, the deportment of many church choirs, which he states to be often highly irreverent and indecorous, and thinks that the improprieties he complains of are principally owing to the youth of the persons composing the choir. Without admitting the fact, for which we believe there is but little foundation, we should not wish to see any others em-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ployed, than well instructed and agreeable singers, to conduct the music of the church; and as the powers of the voice, like all others, decline and decay as the age advances, the best vocalists of the parish will generally be found among the younger part of it.

We entirely agree with Mr Mason's remarks on the question, whether the whole congregation should be encouraged to join promiscuously in this exercise, or whether it should be committed to a select choir.

'If,' says he, 'the devotional effect of music depends upon the mere circumstance of a person's engaging audibly in singing; or if it depends upon the quantity of noise produced; the congregational mode is undoubtedly to be preferred. But if, as has been suggested, there is an analogy between the arts of rhetoric and music—if the effects of each are to be produced by means somewhat similar, all will agree, that from such a jargon of sound as will be produced by a large assembly of all ages and descriptions engaged each one in singing as seems good in his own eyes, but little benefit can be expected. Wherever congregational singing has prevailed, there has been neither good tone, correct intonation, distinct articulation, nor proper emphasis or expression.'

It is indeed a great abuse, that a considerable number of an audience should be interrupted and diverted from the perception of the musical effect intended to be produced by a fine choir, by the vainglorious exhibitions of some ignorant or discordant singer in their vicinity. The general pretence for this practice is, that one must sing or shout the words audibly, in order to feel the full force of the sentiment of the hymn. It would not be more absurd to insist on joining audibly in the prayers or the sermon for the same reason.

We have not room to notice Mr Mason's remarks on the nature of musical adaptation, which we think very judicious, and sincerely hope his observations on the whole subject may have the weight they deserve, with the musical part of the community. We have only to add, that in some future edition of the valuable collections of sacred music published in Boston by the Handel and Haydn Society, we trust we may see an illustration of Mr Mason's remarks on assimilating the musical expression with the sentiment conveyed by the words. A most striking instance of inattention to this important particular, in the means of giving effect to the words sung, occurs in a chorus of Mozart contained in the first volume of the large work published by this Society. In the clause, 'We give thanks to thee for thy great glory,' a powerful emphasis is repeatedly given to the particle '*for*,' thereby destroying the musical expression of the whole clause.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

QUARTERLY LIST OF NEW PUBLICATIONS.

ARTS AND SCIENCES.

A Map of the Heavens, delineating the Heavenly Bodies on a Plain Sphere, &c. Utica, N. Y.

Meteorological Register for the Years 1822, 1823, 1824, and 1825, from Observations made by the Surgeons of the Army at the Military Posts of the United States. Prepared under the Direction of Joseph Lovell, M. D. Surgeon General of the United States Army. Washington. Edward De Krafft. 8vo. pp. 63.

American Natural History, Vol. I. Part 1; containing Twentytwo finely engraved Copperplates. By John D. Godman, M. D. Philadelphia. H. C. Carey & I. Lea.

American Journal of Science and Arts. Conducted by Benjamin Silliman. Vol. XI. No. 2, for October, 1826.

The present number completes *eleven volumes* of this Journal, and all the friends of scientific improvement among us must regret to find, by a circular from the editor accompanying this number, that so slender and inadequate encouragement is afforded to the work. As a production of such national interest, and embracing as it does the results of the labors of our most eminent men of science, it demands a patronage as universal as its objects and utility. The editor's remarks, in describing the influence of this Journal, set the subject in so strong a light, that we shall quote them.

'Perhaps the editor,' says he, '(since he is much more the organ of his correspondents, than his own) may be pardoned for quoting, on this occasion, the opinion of eminent men at home, with the expression of which he has often been gratified; that the American Journal has contributed to elevate the reputation of our country abroad; that it has become identified with the interests and progress of science and the arts, throughout the civilized world; and that it forms an important member of the great intellectual machinery of the age. In exchange, it receives a large number of the principal foreign Journals, and their pages often contain matter derived from the American Journal. Its character, as an authentic record of original American communications and discoveries, has caused it to be sought abroad with peculiar interest, and to be received with uncommon favor. In proof of this, it may be stated, that, among the learned associations and eminent men in Europe, who have addressed kind and commendatory letters to the editor, or have transmitted their works or Journals in acknowledgment or in exchange, are; in Sicily, Professor Ferrara; in Geneva, the late Professor Pictet; in Bavaria, the Chevalier De Martius; in Halle, Germany, Drs Schweigger and Meinecke, besides other German Professors; in Sweden, Professors Berzelius and Sefstroem; in France, Brogniart, father and son, Dr Majendie, Brochant, Gay-Lussac; Julien, Editor of the Revue Encyclopédique; Baron Ferussac, Editor of the Bulletin des Sciences; the Council of Mines; the Society for the Encouragement of the Arts; that for the promotion of National Industry; the Linnæan Society, &c. In London, the late Dr Tilloch, and the late Mr Parkes; Arthur

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Aikin, Secretary of the Society of Arts, &c.; H. Heuland, Secretary of the Geological Society; the Editors of the Annals of Philosophy; of the Philosophical Magazine; of the Journal of Science of the Royal Institution; of the Mechanic's Oracle; the Mechanic's Magazine, and several literary Journals. In the university of Oxford, Professors Kidd, Buckland, and Conybeare, with Mr Philips, the distinguished coadjutor of the latter. In Edinburgh, Professor Jamieson, Dr Brewster, and the late Dr John Murray; and in Glasgow, Professor Thomson. At home, the American Journal is considered as an equivalent, in exchange, for our various literary and scientific publications; it enjoys the support and countenance of a great number of our able scientific, and public men, and its pages sufficiently evince how far it has proved auxiliary to the developement of native talent, and to the creation of useful effort in science and the arts.

'It remains, however, for the editor to state, that to *this hour, the existence of the American Journal*, now in its ninth year, *is perpetuated only by continued personal sacrifices*'

This is a very discouraging picture for an editor to contemplate. He adds, moreover, that '*five hundred subscribers are necessary simply to pay the expenses of the work;* and that the present number, being somewhat under that amount, pecuniary advances have continued to be occasionally necessary, in addition to the editorial labor and responsibility.' This exposition should stir up the men of science in the country, not merely to contribute their share to the materials of the work, but to take a lively interest in extending its circulation. The scientific character of this Journal necessarily gives it a less popular air, than one having a greater latitude of topics and discussion, and it must look for encouragement exclusively to that portion of the community, who can estimate the importance of scientific progress, and of drawing out the talents of the country to act upon subjects intimately connected with the useful arts, and the means of social enjoyment. To men of science, then, the editor may appeal with earnestness and confidence, and we hope not in vain. A little individual exertion on their part, would not fail to procure a liberal subscription, and give a new and permanent impulse to a work, calculated to be so honorable and useful to the country.

A Compendium of the Flora of the Northern and Middle States, containing Generic and Specific Descriptions of all the Plants, exclusive of Cryptogamia, hitherto found in the United States, North of the Potomac. By John Torrey, M. D.

BIOGRAPHY.

Memoirs of Ministers and other deceased Members of the Society of Friends, in the State of New York.

EDUCATION.

The Juvenile Miscellany. For the Instruction and Amusement of Youth. Vol. I. Nos. 1 and 2. Boston. J. Putnam. 18mo. pp. 107.

Simple Truths in Verse, for the Amusement and Instruction of Children at an Early Age. By Mary Belson. New York. S. Wood & Son. 18mo. pp. 108.

The Grecian History, from the Earliest State to the Death of Alexander the Great. By Dr Goldsmith. Revised and corrected, and a Vocabulary of Proper Names appended, &c. by William Grimshaw. Philadelphia. J. Grigg. 12mo. pp. 322.

An Abridgment of Milner's Church History, for the Use of Schools and Private Families. By Rebecca Eaton. Second Edition. Charleston, S. C. William Riley. 12mo. pp. 324.

Tyro's Friend; consisting chiefly of easy Lessons in Spelling and Reading; designed for Children from Three to Eight Years of Age. Brookfield. E. & G. Merriam.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Rudiments of Geography, on a New Plan, designed to assist the Memory by Comparisons and Classifications. By William C. Woodbridge. New Edition. Hartford. O. D. Cooke & Co. 18mo. pp. 208.

A Key to the last New York Edition of Bonnycastle's Algebra; containing correct Solutions to all the Questions. By James Ryan. New York. Collins & Hannay. 18mo. pp. 261.

The Practical Analyst, or a Treatise on Algebra; designed for the Use of Schools. By Enoch Lewis.

Rudimental Lessons in Etymology and Syntax, in which these two Parts of Grammar are exhibited in Parallel Columns, carefully adapted to the Capacity of Young Learners. By Manasseh Robbins. Providence. 12mo. pp. 69.

The Classical Reader; a selection of Lessons in Prose and Verse, from the most esteemed English and American Writers, intended for the Use of the Higher Classes in public and private Seminaries. By the Rev F. W. P. Greenwood and G. B. Emerson, of Boston. Boston. Lincoln & Edmands. 12mo. pp. 420.

An Epitome of Geography, with an Atlas. By J. E. Worcester. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, & Co. 18mo. pp. 165.

Mr Worcester's success as a geographer renders it unnecessary for us to say anything more of this little work, than that it bears all the characteristic marks of his former productions. He is accurate, clear, and remarkably happy in condensing the most important particulars, and bringing them down to the ready apprehension of children. The subjects are divided with precision, and appropriate questions are prepared as a guide to the learner.

The author has one merit almost peculiar to himself. He has taken unwearied pains to designate the accurate pronunciation of the names of places in various countries. This is of great utility, for if a child becomes accustomed to a right pronunciation at first, the thing is done forever, and he will have no more trouble about it; whereas, if he begins wrong, he is embarrassed and doubting all his life, and in his intercourse with men must often be subject to mortification on account of his ignorance. There is no better test of an accurate education, than a right pronunciation of proper names, both ancient and modern; and the use of marks of accentuation in recent school books is an essential improvement. We have seen no writer, who attends to it with so much particularity as Mr Worcester; and it is for this reason, that we shall notice what we deem a few slight errors. Some of them may possibly be misprints. He writes *Oconee'*, *Darien'*, *Para'na*, *Poto'si*; we believe they ought to be accented *Oco'nee*, *Da'rien* [or Dah'rien], *Paranu'*, *Potosi'*. He spells *Carac'cas*, *Guatima'la*, *Valparay'so*. In South America the orthography of these words is *Carac'as*, *Guatema'la*, *Valparai'so*. He writes *Tennessee'*, and *Michigan'*; we suspect the more common pronunciation in the Western country is *Ten'nessee*, and *Mich'igan*. As a general remark, there is a growing tendency in pronouncing Indian names to throw back the accent.

There will be much fluctuation in the pronunciation of the names of places in South America for a long time to come, owing to our imperfect acquaintance with the sounds of some of the Spanish letters, and the habit, which has been acquired of pronouncing words as we see them in books, after the English sounds of the letters. But so much intercourse is now growing up between that country and this, and so many persons are daily coming among us, who pronounce after the Spanish mode, that the ear will gradually become accustomed to this pronunciation, and it will at length prevail universally. Now as the only rule for pronouncing the names of places, is the custom of the people who inhabit those places, we believe it would be best for geographers to adopt at once the Spanish pronunciation of South American words, particularly those where the sounds can be easily uttered by English organs. For instance, we would inculcate the Spanish pronunciation of *Chile* (*Chee'-le*), *Lima* (*Lee'mah*), and other words of a similar kind.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

And by the way, we think it is quite time for geographers, and all other writers, to introduce the true orthography of *Chile*, and no longer sanction the old corruption, *Chili*.

Mr Worcester has attempted to give the sounds of some Spanish words in which he has failed, by not attending to the exact power of two or three letters. Take for examples *Guadalaxara*, *Guanaxuato*, which he pronounces Guah-da-lax-ah'-ra; Gwah-nax-wah'to. This gives the words very imperfectly. It would be nearer to write them *Gwah-dah-lah-ha'ra*, and *Gwah-nah-hu-ah'to*. As the words are originally written, the *x* has the sound of a strongly aspirated *h*. Sometimes *j* is used instead of the *x*, with the same sound. Thus the name of a city, from which the term *jalap* is derived, is written promiscuously *Xalapa*, or *Jalapa*, and in either case is pronounced *Hala'pa*, with the *h* aspirated. There is another class of words with the Spanish *ll*, which presents a difficulty, but one which can nearly be conquered; thus, *Truxillo*, may be very well represented by *Truh-heel'-io*; or perhaps more nearly by *Truh-heel'-yo*, letting the tongue rest a little upon the *l* in the accented syllable.

A Key, containing Answers to the Examples in the Sequel to Intellectual Arithmetic. By Warren Colburn, A. M. Stereotyped at the Boston Type and Stereotype Foundery. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, & Co. 12mo. pp. 70.

Essays upon Popular Education; containing a Particular Examination of the Schools of Massachusetts, and an Outline of an Institution for the Education of Teachers. By James G. Carter. Boston. Bowles & Dearborn. 8vo. pp. 60.

The Class-Book of American Literature; consisting principally of Selections in the Departments of History, Biography, Prose Fiction, Poetry, &c. from the best Writers of our own Country. Designed to be used as a Reading-Book in American Schools. By John Frost. Boston. J. H. A. Frost. 12mo. pp. 288.

Manual of Mutual Instruction; consisting of Mr Fowle's Directions for introducing in Common Schools the Improved System adopted in the Monitorial School, Boston. With an Appendix, containing some Considerations in Favor of the Monitorial Method, and a Sketch of its Progress, &c. By William Russell. Boston. Wait, Greene, & Co. 12mo. pp. 131.

The First Book, or Spelling Lessons for Primary Schools. Boston. Munroe & Francis. 18mo. pp. 120.

Conversations on Common Things; or, Guide to Knowledge. With Questions for the Use of Schools and Families. By a Teacher. New Edition. Boston. Munroe & Francis. 18mo. pp. 288.

Lights of Education, or Mr Hope and His Family; a Narrative for Young Persons. By a Lady. Part II. Baltimore. E. J. Coale.

An Introduction to Algebra upon the Inductive Method of Instruction. By Warren Colburn. Stereotype Edition. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, & Co. 12mo. pp. 276.

A History of the United States of America, on a Plan adapted to the Capacity of Youth. By the Rev. Charles A. Goodrich. A New Edition. Hartford. S. G. Goodrich. 18mo. pp. 316.

The Mercantile Arithmetic. By Michael Walsh. A New Edition. Boston. Richardson & Lord. 12mo. pp. 307.

A Spanish Grammar. By A. De Letamendi, late Consul of Spain for East Florida. Price $1,50. Charleston, S. C. W. Riley.

Marci Tullii Ciceronis Orationes quædam Selectæ, in Usum Del

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

phini, cum Interpretatione et Variantibus aliquot per singulas Orationes Lectionibus, &c. With English Notes. By John G. Smart. Philadelphia.

Arithmetic on the Inductive Method of Instruction; being a Sequel to Intellectual Arithmetic. By Warren Colburn, A. M. Stereotype Edition. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, & Co. 12mo. pp. 245.

Geography for Beginners, or the Instructer's Assistant in giving First Lessons from Maps; with an Atlas, adapted exclusively to the Work. By Emma Willard, Principal of the Troy Female Seminary.

Outlines of Modern Geography, on a new plan, carefully adapted to Youth, &c. By the Rev. Charles A. Goodrich. Second Edition. Boston. S. G. Goodrich. 18mo. pp. 252.

Deutsches Lesebuch für Anfänger. Cambridge. Hilliard & Metcalf. 12mo. pp. 252.

This is one of the pleasantest and best selections we are acquainted with, for the purpose of introducing a beginner to the knowledge of a foreign language. The object of it, as stated in the preface, is to give a collection of examples illustrative of the rules and peculiarities of the language from works of acknowledged classical rank, and at the same time to afford the learner a foretaste of the modern German literature. This object is, we think, well attained; and though a task of no very formidable nature, yet it is one not unworthy of the attention of the learned scholar who has prepared the book, and to whom we are indebted for contributing his efforts to increase the means of cultivating one of the most useful and important languages of the present day.

GEOGRAPHY.

An Atlas of the State of South Carolina, made under the Authority of the Legislature; prefaced with a Geographical, Statistical, and Historical Map of the State. By Robert Mills, Engineer and Architect. 4to.

A New General Atlas, comprising a complete set of Maps, representing the Grand Divisions of the Globe. Together with the several Empires, Kingdoms, and States in the World. Compiled from the best Authorities, and corrected by the most recent Discoveries. Philadelphia. Price $10. Anthony Finley. Imperial 4to.

A new and very elegant Map of the World, on six super royal sheets, forming a surface of thirty square feet, and comprising all the latest discoveries. Price to subscribers, $7,00. Philadelphia. A. Finley.

HISTORY.

The History of New England, from 1630 to 1649. By John Winthrop, Esq. From his Original Manuscripts. With Notes, by James Savage. Vol. II. Boston. Thomas B. Wait & Son. 8vo. pp. 429.

Historical Account of the First Presbyterian Church and Society in Newburyport, Mass., addressed to the Congregation worshipping in Federal Street, July 9, 1826. By Samuel P. Williams. Saratoga Springs. G. M. Davison. 8vo. pp. 67.

History of the United States, from their first Settlement as Colonies to the Close of the War with Great Britain in 1815. New York. Collins & Hannay. 12mo. pp. 281.

Collections of the New York Historical Society for the Year 1826. Vol. IV. New York. J. Seymour. 8vo. pp. 308.

Elements of History, Ancient and Modern; with Historical Charts.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

By J. E. Worcester. Second Edition. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, & Co. 12mo. pp. 324.

The History and Present State of the Town of Newburyport. By Caleb Cushing. Newburyport. E. W. Allen. 12mo. pp. 120.

A very full history of the town of Newburyport is given in this volume, arranged under the topics of civil history, topography, benevolent associations, religious societies, masonic bodies, education, literary associations, militia, statistics, distinguished inhabitants. The industry of the author is conspicuous in the mass of materials, which he has brought together under each of these heads; and the results of his labors form a document highly valuable, not for its local information only, but for its general relation to the history of Massachusetts

Topographical and Historical Sketches of the Town of Lancaster, in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts; furnished for the Worcester Magazine and Historical Journal. By Joseph Willard. Worcester. Charles Griffin. 8vo. pp. 90.

Memoirs of the Historical Society of Pennsylvania. Vol. I. Part II. Philadelphia. H. C. Carey & I. Lea.

LAW.

Reports of Cases argued and adjudged in the Supreme Court of the United States, February Term, 1823. By Henry Wheaton. Vol. II. New York. R. Donaldson. 8vo. pp. 475.

Reports of Cases argued and determined in the Supreme Judicial Court of the State of Maine. By Simon Greenleaf. Vol. III. Portland. James Adams, Jr. 8vo. pp. 504.

Laws of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, passed by the General Court, June Session, 1826. Boston. True & Greene. 8vo.

A Treatise on the Right of Property in Tide Waters, and in the Soil and Shores thereof. By Joseph K. Angell. To which is added, an Appendix, containing the principal adjudged Cases. Boston. Harrison Gray. 8vo. pp. 246.

The Township's, Officer's, and Young Clerk's Assistant. Columbus, Ohio. Price 75 cents. Thomas Johnson.

The Third Number of Mr Hopkins's Chancery Reports. Albany.

A Report of the Trial of Jeroboam O. Beauchamp, before the Franklin Circuit Court in May, 1826, upon an Indictment for the Murder of Col. Solomon P. Sharpe. Frankfort. Albert G. Hodges. 12mo. pp. 153.

A Full Report of the Trial of Henry Eckford, Thomas Vermilyea, Joseph G. Swift, William P. Rathbone, and others, for Conspiracy to defraud, &c. Embracing the whole Evidence, and the Speeches of the Counsel on both sides. New York. pp. 48.

Forms adapted to the Laws now in Force, with many New Forms, under every Title, &c. By Conway Robinson. Richmond. Collins & Co.

Reports of Cases argued and determined in the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts. By Octavius Pickering, Counsellor at Law. No. II. Vol. III. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, & Co.

Reports of Cases argued and determined in the Supreme Court of Judicature for the State of New Hampshire, commencing with Strafford, September Term, 1825, and ending with Hillsborough, April Term, 1826. Vol. III. Part III. Concord. J. B. Moore. 8vo.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

MEDICINE.

A Treatise on the Descriptive Anatomy of the Human Body. By W. E. Horner, M. D. Three Volumes. Philadelphia. H. C. Carey & I. Lea.

A Discourse on the Western Autumnal Disease; read before the Tenth District Medical Society of Ohio, at Chilicothe, May 30, 1826. By J. W. Vethuke, M. D.

A Treatise on the Medical and Physical Treatment of Children. By W. P. Dewees, M. D. New Edition. Philadelphia. H. C. Carey & I. Lea.

A Treatise on Physiology applied to Pathology. By J. V. Broussais, M. D. Translated from the French, by John Bell, M. D. and R. La Roche, M. D. Philadelphia. 8vo. H. C. Carey & I. Lea.

The American Physician, and Family Assistant. In Four Parts. By Elias Smith. Boston.

A Dissertation on the Prophylactic Management of Infancy and Early Childhood. Read before the Massachusetts Medical Society, at their Annual Meeting, June 7, 1826. By J. H. Flint. Northampton. T. Watson. 8vo. pp. 20.

Observations on the Preservation of the Teeth, and the Accidents of Extracting. By Theodore Eswein, Surgeon Dentist, Member of the Medical Society of South Carolina. Price 50 cents.

American Modern Practice; or, a Simple Method of Prevention and Cure of Diseases. By James Thacher. A New Edition, improved. Boston. Cotton & Barnard. 8vo. pp. 796.

Hooper's Medical Dictionary. A New Edition. New York. J. & J. Harper.

The London Practice of Midwifery; to which is added, Notes, Plates, and Denman's Aphorisms. By an American Practitioner. Sixth Edition, much enlarged and improved. Concord, N. H. Isaac Hill. 8vo. pp. 335.

The English Physician Enlarged; containing Three Hundred and Sixty-nine Receipts for Medicines made from Herbs. By Nicholas Culpepper. Taunton. S. W. Mortimer. 12mo. pp. 259.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Mr Stewart's Report on the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal, made in Congress, on the 19th of May, 1826. Washington. Gales & Seaton. 8vo.

Minutes of the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church in the United States of America. With an Appendix. Philadelphia. 8vo. pp. 103.

Speech of His Excellency Levi Lincoln, delivered before the Legislature, June 6, 1826. Together with Documents referred to therein. Boston. True & Greene. 8vo. pp. 75.

Ordinances of the Mayor and Common Council of Baltimore; to which is prefixed, a Collection of Acts and Parts of Acts of Assembly, relating to the Corporation. Published by Authority. Baltimore. 8vo. pp. 350.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The True Masonic Chart, or Hieroglyphic Monitor. Designed and duly arranged agreeably to the Lectures, by R. W. Jeremy L. Cross, G. L. Fourth Edition. New Haven. 12mo. pp. 240.

The New American Practical Navigator, being an Epitome of Navigation. By Nathaniel Bowditch. A New Edition. New York. Edmund M. Blunt. 8vo. pp. 617.

Two Letters, addressed to the Rev. Horatio Bardwell, of Holden, Mass. By Charles C. P. Crosby. Worcester. W. Manning. 8vo. pp. 24.

Proceedings of a Meeting of the Friends of Civil and Religious Liberty, residing in the District of Columbia, assembled at the City Hall in Washington City, June 20th, 1826. Arranged and published by John Boyle. 8vo. pp. 27.

A Narrative of the Material Facts in relation to the Building of the two Greek Frigates. By Alexander Contostavlos. New York. pp. 88.

Report of the Evidence and Reasons of the Award between Johannes Orlandos and Andreas Luriottis, Greek Deputies, on the one part; and Le Roy, Bayard, & Co. and G. S. Howland on the other part. By the Arbitrators. New York. W. E. Dean. pp. 72.

Refutations of the Reasons assigned by the Arbitrators, for their Award in the Case of the two Greek Frigates. By H. D. Sedgwick. New York. J. Seymour.

The Atlantic Souvenir; a Christmas and New Year's Offering for 1827. With Ten Engravings. Philadelphia. H. C. Carey & I. Lea 18mo. pp. 360.

Address delivered before the Benevolent Society of Bowdoin College, Tuesday Evening, September 5, 1826. By Samuel P. Newman. Portland. Printed at the Mirror Office. 8vo. pp. 29.

Observations on the Sermons of Elias Hicks, in several Letters to him; with some Introductory Remarks, addressed to the Junior Members of the Society of Friends. By a Demi-Quaker.

A Summary Description of the New York Alms-House at Bellevue, together with a concise Account of the new Hospital, &c.; also a brief Mention of the Penitentiary, and the Manner in which the Prisoners are employed. New York.

The Question of Retrocession, stated and discussed. By a Citizen of the District of Columbia. Georgetown, D. C. 8vo. pp. 48.

We have not room to notice this pamphlet in a way to do justice to the subject, but whoever wishes to see a discussion of the topic, so much agitated of late, respecting the jurisdiction of the general government over the District of Columbia, and the various points connected with this discussion, will find it here done with directness and considerable ability.

The Keys; a Vision of Samaritanus. Chilicothe, Ohio. 12mo. pp. 54.

The Memorial; a Christmas and New Year's Offering. Edited by F. S. H. Boston. True & Greene. 18mo. pp. 288.

The Friend to Health; being a Selection of valuable Truths, relating to the Preservation of Health, from the works of Thacher, Franklin, Thomson, Salzmann, &c. Boston. Marsh & Capen. 12mo. pp. 107.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Elnathan; a Narrative illustrative of the Manners of the Ancient Israelites. Philadelphia. 18mo. pp. 136.

The Essayist, or Literary Cabinet, containing Essays, Dissertations, &c. on various Subjects. To which is added, an Oration on the Completion of the Grand Canal, pronounced November 4, 1825. By a Student. New York.

Review of Bishop Hobart's Sermon, entitled 'The United States of America compared with some European Countries, particularly England,' contained in the London Quarterly Theological Review for June, 1826; with two Answers to the same, one in the New York Christian Journal for October, 1826, and the other in the London Christian Remembrancer for September, 1826. New York. T. & J. Swords.

A Short Inquiry into the Antiquity and Pretensions of Freemasonry, being an Examination of the Freemason's Monitor. Price 25 cents.

An Etymological Dictionary and Expositor of the English Language. By William Grimshaw. Second Edition. Philadelphia.

The Sketch Book of Geoffrey Crayon, Gent. Third American Edition. New York. C. S. Van Winkle. 12mo. pp. 280 and 308.

An Appeal to the Public in General, and the People of Virginia in Particular, by Matthew H. Rice, late Selling and General Agent for the Penitentiary, showing when and how the Defalcation occurred in the Fiscal and Stock Account of that Institution.

The Fashionable American Letter Writer, or the Art of Polite Correspondence. With Forms of Complimentary Cards. To the whole is prefixed, Directions for Letter Writing, and Rules for Composition. Boston. James Loring. 18mo. pp. 179.

The Four Ages of Life, a Gift for Every Age. Translated from the French of the Count de Segur. New York. G. & C. Carvill.

Remarks on Greek Grammars, from the American Journal of Education. Boston. 8vo. pp. 27.

A View of South America and Mexico, comprising their History, the Political Condition, Geography, Agriculture, Commerce, &c. of the Republics of Mexico, Guatemala, Colombia, Peru, the United Provinces of South America and Chili. With a Complete History of the Revolution in each of the Independent States. By a Citizen of the United States. Two Volumes in One. New York. H. Huntington. 12mo. pp. 204 and 230.

Vindication of the Conduct and Character of Henry D. Sedgwick against certain Charges made by the Hon. Jonas Platt; together with some Statements and Inquiries, intended to elicit the Reasons of the Award in the Case of the Greek Frigates. New York. J. Seymour. 8vo. pp. 24.

The Claims of Citizens of the United States of America on the Government of Naples, Holland, and France. By Edward Everett. Cambridge. Hilliard & Metcalf. 8vo. pp. 152.

A Geographical View of the World, embracing the Manners, Customs, and Pursuits of Every Nation. By the Rev. J. Goldsmith. Revised, corrected, and improved, by James G. Percival.

A Sketch of My Friend's Family, &c. By Mrs Marshall. New Edition. Philadelphia. 18mo. pp. 108.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Brief Account of the Construction, Management, and Discipline of the New York State Prison at Auburn, &c. By G. Powers, Agent and Keeper. 8vo. pp. 82.

Catalogue of the Books belonging to the Charleston Library Society. Charleston, S. C. 8vo. pp. 375.

The city library of Charleston, South Carolina, is among the best collections of books in the country. A new Catalogue recently published, and now before us, is a convincing proof of its value, as well as of the interest and zeal with which many of the citizens have engaged in establishing and enlarging it. In the following extract from the preface, some curious particulars are stated, respecting the progress of the library before the revolution.

'The Charleston Library Society owes its origin to seventeen young gentlemen who, in the year 1748, associated for the purpose of raising a small fund to "collect such new pamphlets" and magazines as should occasionally be published in Great Britain. They advanced and remitted to London ten pounds sterling as a fund to purchase such pamphlets as had appeared during the current year, acting at first under a mere verbal agreement and without a name. Before the close of the year their views became more extensive, and on the 28th of December, rules for the organization of the Society were ratified and signed, when they assumed the name of a *Library Society*, and made arrangements for the acquisition of books as well as of pamphlets.

'Officers were first elected on the first of April, 1749, and a few members were added during the spring and summer of that year. But as soon as the benefits of such an association were distinctly understood, the Society became popular, and before the close of the year 1750 numbered more than 160 members.

'Efforts were made at an early period to obtain an act of incorporation. In the spring of 1651, through the influence of some of its members, a bill for incorporating the Society was passed through both Houses of Assembly, but was defeated by the Governor, who refused his assent and signature. In the spring of 1752, another bill was passed through the Legislature, which shared the same fate; and in 1753, the agent of the Colony in London was requested to make every exertion in his power to obtain from the Privy Council in Great Britain a charter for the Society, or instructions to the Governor to ratify the act, which both Houses of the Colonial Assembly had passed. Upon an application to the Board of Trade by the Agent, and some gentlemen who interested themselves on behalf of the Society, they were informed, that the measure was not considered as contrary to his Majesty's instructions, but that it was unprecedented to ratify in England a Bill to which the Governor of a Province had refused his assent.

'It is difficult now to ascertain the causes, which created these obstructions to the incorporation of a Literary Society. But the effect was injurious, and had nearly produced a dissolution of the association. The members finally resolved to place their funds at interest, and make no further purchases until a charter could be obtained. A third Bill, however, was passed in 1754, to which Governor Glen finally gave his assent, and on the 24th of June, 1755, it was confirmed by the Crown.'

The library met with various success after the Revolution. It is now supposed to exceed 12,000 volumes.

The present Catalogue is formed on a scientific, and somewhat novel arrangement, with the divisions and subdivisions so carried out, as to present every subject very distinctly to the inquirer. The whole is arranged under six grand divisions as follows.

'1st. Of Man in his intellectual capacity. On the Philosophy and Discipline of the Human Mind.
2d. Of Man in relation to the Deity. Theology.
3d. Of Man in relation to his fellows. Ethics.
4th. Of Man in relation to Society. Government, Jurisprudence, and Politics.
5th. Of the pursuits, the improvements, and discoveries of Man in Society.
6th. Of the History of Man in Society.'

The department of American history in this library is more imperfect, than most of the others, and may be enlarged to much advantage.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

MUSIC.

A Selection of Sacred Melodies, compiled and arranged by John Willis, Organist of the West Church in Boston. No. 1. Boston. S. H. Parker. Price $1.

The Instrumental Director; containing Rules for all Musical Instruments in Common Use, laid down in a plain and concise manner. Second Edition, enlarged and improved. Hallowell. Glazier & Co. 4to. pp. 104.

A New and Complete Preceptor for the German Flute; together with a Collection of Airs, Marches, Waltzes, &c. Price 75 cents. Albany. D. Steele and Sons.

ORATIONS AND ADDRESSES.

An Oration, delivered by Chancellor Desaussure, on the 4th of July, 1826. Columbia, S. C. 8vo. pp. 30.

An Eulogy on the Lives and Characters of John Adams and Thomas Jefferson. By H. M. Brackenridge. Pensacola. W. H. Hunt. 8vo. pp. 16.

A Sketch of the Character of John Adams, delivered in the Church, Barton Square, Salem, on the 9th of July, 1826, the Lord's Day after his interment; with notices of the Character of the late Mrs Adams. By Henry Colman. Salem. J. & R. Buffum. 8vo. pp. 28.

A Sermon delivered July 9th, 1826, the Sunday following the Death of the Hon. John Adams, a former President of the United States. By Aaron Bancroft, D. D. Worcester. 8vo. pp. 15.

A Discourse pronounced before the Phi Beta Kappa Society, at the Anniversary Celebration, on the 31st of August, 1826. By Joseph Story. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, & Co. 8vo. pp. 58.

An Oration delivered at Germantown, Pennsylvania, on the 20th of July, 1826, in Commemoration of the virtues and services of Thomas Jefferson and John Adams. By Walter R. Johnson. Philadelphia. R. A. Small. 8vo. pp. 25.

An Address delivered at Plymouth, Massachusetts, at the Consecration of "Plymouth Lodge," September 6, A. L. 5826. By James Gordon Carter. Plymouth. Allen Danforth. 8vo. pp. 37.

An Eulogy on John Adams and Thomas Jefferson, pronounced August 10, 1826, at the Request of the Town of Salem. By Joseph E. Sprague. Salem. Warwick Palfray. 8vo. pp. 48.

Eulogy delivered at Belfast, August 10, 1826, on John Adams and Thomas Jefferson; at the Request of the citizens of Belfast. By Alfred Johnson, Jr. Belfast. E. Fellowes. 8vo. pp. 28.

An Address, delivered at Portland, on the decease of John Adams and Thomas Jefferson, August 9, 1826. By C. S. Daveis. Portland. 8vo. pp. 55.

Mr Forsyth's Eulogium on Adams and Jefferson. Augusta, Geo.

Eulogy on John Adams and Thomas Jefferson, delivered, August 2, 1826, by Request of the Inhabitants of Bridgewater. By John A. Shaw. Taunton. S. W. Mortimer. 8vo. pp. 20.

The Illustrious Dead; a Sermon, preached on Wednesday, August 2, 1826, being the day appointed by the Common Council of Augusta for the Funeral Obsequies of Mr Adams and Mr Jefferson. By Hugh Smith. Augusta, Geo.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

An Oration, pronounced at Newport, July 4, 1826, the Fiftieth Anniversary of American Independence. By Joseph H. Patten. Providence. 8vo. pp. 18.

An Oration pronounced at New Haven before the Society of Phi Beta Kappa, September 12, 1826, on some of the considerations which should influence an Epic or a Tragic Writer in the choice of an Era. By James A. Hillhouse. New Haven. A. H. Maltby & Co. 8vo. pp. 32.

Address on Church Music, delivered, by request, on the Evening of Saturday, October 7, 1826, in the Vestry of Hanover Church, and on the evening of Monday following, in the Second Baptist Church, Boston. By Lowell Mason. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, & Co. 8vo. pp. 42.

A Discourse delivered on the 24th of October, 1826, before the Society for the Commemoration of the Landing of William Penn. By T. J. Wharton. Philadelphia. Carey & Lea. 8vo. pp. 44.

Address delivered before the Philological Society of Middlebury College, on the 15th of August. By Jonathan E. Southwayd. Montpelier. E. P. Walton. 8vo. pp. 15.

An Oration Pronounced at Middlebury, before the Associated Alumni of the College, on the evening of Commencement, August 16th, 1826. By Beriah Green. Castleton. Ovid Miner. 8vo. pp. 34.

Eulogy on John Adams, delivered Sept. 14th, 1826, in St Michael's Church. By Timothy Ford. Charleston, S. C. 8vo. pp. 39.

Discourse delivered in Quincy, at the Interment of John Adams, July 7th, 1826. By Rev. Peter Whitney. 8vo. pp. 19.

Funeral Eulogy on the Characters of Thomas Jefferson and John Adams. Pronounced on the 1st of August, 1826, at Pineville, S. C. By Charles Stevens. 8vo. pp. 18.

Anniversary Discourse pronounced before the Philadelphia Forum, Nov. 4th, 1826. By William L. Hirst. Philadelphia. Carey & Lea. 8vo. pp. 42.

NOVELS.

Bracebridge Hall, or the Humorist; a Medley. By Geoffrey Crayon, Gent. Third American Edition. New York. C. S. Van Winkle. 12mo. pp. 309 and 316.

A History of New York, from the Beginning of the World to the End of the Dutch Dynasty. By Diedrich Knickerbocker. Fifth American Edition. New York. C. S. Van Winkle. 12mo. pp. 300 and 268.

Ambrose and Eleanor, or the Adventures of Two Children, deserted on an Uninhabited Island. Translated from the French. Philadelphia. R. Desilver. 12mo. pp. 132.

Francis Berrian; or, the Mexican Patriot. In 2 Vols. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, & Co. 12mo. pp. 299 and 285.

Yorktown; an Historical Romance. In Two Volumes. Boston. Wells & Lilly. 12mo. pp. 280 and 255.

POETRY.

Lyric Poems. By William B. Tappan. Philadelphia. Ash & Mason. 12mo.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The Songster's Museum; a New and Choice Collection of Popular Songs, selected from the best Authors. Hartford. Henry Benton. 18mo. pp. 72.

Horace in New York. A Satire. New York.

Africa; a Poem. Second Edition. Andover. Flagg & Gould. 12mo.

The Grave of Byron, with other Poems. By George Lunt. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, & Co. 18mo. pp. 84.

An Anniversary Poem, delivered at New Haven, Connecticut, before the Connecticut Alpha of the Phi Beta Kappa, September 12, 1826. By James G. Brooks. New York. G. & C. Carville. 8vo. pp. 28.

Poems, by Milton Ward. Plymouth. 18mo. pp. 108.

The Populous Village, a Poem, recited before the Philermenian Society of Brown University, September, 1826. Providence. 8vo. pp. 18.

The Sailor Boy's First Voyage. A Ballad in Two Parts. Boston. Wait, Greene, & Co. 18mo. pp. 54.

POLITICAL ECONOMY.

New Ideas on Population; with Remarks on the theories of Malthus and Godwin. Second Edition. To which is prefixed, a new Preface, containing a brief Examination of the Opinions of MM. Say and Sismondi on the same Subject. By Alexander H. Everett. Boston. Cummings, Hilliard, & Co. 8vo. pp. 125.

POLITICS.

Message from the President of the United States, transmitting Copies of the several Instructions to the Ministers of the United States to the Government of France, and of the Correspondence with said Government having reference to the Spoliations committed by that Power on the Commerce of the United States anterior to September 30, 1800, &c. in Compliance with a Resolution of the Senate. Washington. Gales & Seaton. 8vo. pp. 840.

THEOLOGY.

An Address to the Flocks of the Reverend Approvers of Blanco White's Internal Evidences against Catholicism. Baltimore. Fielding Lucas & Co.

A Sermon on the Apostolic Mission and the Doctrine of Baptism. By the Rev. George Atkins. Knoxville, Tennessee. Price 25 cents.

A Sermon on the occasion of the Death of the Rev. Oliver Morris, preached in Christ's Church, Alexandria, on Sunday, 18th of September, 1825. By the Rev. William Meade.

Letters on the Religious Notions of A. Campbell and others, as exhibited in their Writings, Orations, &c. addressed particularly to the Baptists comprising the Mahoning Association. By a Regular Baptist. Ravenna, Ohio.

Letters on the Gospels. By Miss Hannah Adams. Second Edition. Cambridge. 18mo. pp. 160.

Two Discourses on the Nature of Sin, delivered before the Students

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

of Yale College, July 30, 1826. Ay the Rev. Eleazer T. Fitch. New Haven. Treadway & Adams. 8vo. pp. 46.

The High Churchman Vindicated, in a Fourth Charge to the Clergy of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the State of New York, at the opening of the Convention of said Church, on Thursday, October 17, 1826. By John Henry Hobart. D. D. New York. T. & J. Swords.

A Funeral Sermon on the Death of John Adams and Thomas Jefferson, Ex-Presidents of the United States, preached on Sunday Evening, July 11, 1826. By R. Little. Washington. Price 25 cents.

St Chrysostom on the Priesthood. Translated from the original Greek, with Notes and a Life of the Fathers, by the Rev. Henry M. Mason. Philadelphia. E. Littell.

Immortality proved by the Testimony of Sense; in which is contemplated the Doctrine of Spectres, and the Existence of a particular Spectre. By Abraham Cumming. Price 40 cents. Bath, Me.

An Elementary Course of Biblical Theology, translated from the Work of Professors Storr and Flatt, with Additions. By S. S. Smucker. Andover. Flagg & Gould. 8vo. pp. 481 and 408.

A Sermon, occasioned by the Death of Major David Chapin. By the Rev. Winthrop Briley. Greenfield, Mass.

Sermons, by Thomas Wethereld and Elias Hicks.

The Value of the Soul; a Sermon, preached December 28, 1825, at the Ordination of Mr J. D. Knowles, as Pastor of the Second Baptist Church in Boston. By Ira Chase. Second Edition. Boston. Lincoln & Edmands. 8vo. pp. 20.

Religious Cases of Conscience. By S. Pike and J. Hayward. To which is now added, the Spiritual Companion, or the Professing Christian Tried at the Bar of God's Word. Savannah. S. C. & J. Schenck.

The Christian's Instructer; containing a Summary Explanation and Defence of the Doctrines and Duties of the Christian Religion. By Josiah Hopkins.

A Discourse on the Evidences of Revealed Religion. By William E. Channing, D. D. A New Edition. Boston. 12mo. pp. 35.

Short Practical Essays on the Sabbath. By a Clergyman of New England. Norwich. Thomas Robinson. 18mo. pp. 107.

A Sermon preached in the Chapel of Nassau Hall, August 13, 1826. By Archibald Alexander. Philadelphia.

The Canon of the Old and New Testaments ascertained, or the Bible complete without the Apocrypha and Unwritten Traditions. By Archibald Alexander.

An Essay on Terms of Communion, by the Rev. Charles Brooks, of Goshen, New Hampshire, being an Examination into the Propriety of the Doctrine held by Baptists, of preventing all such of participating in the Sacrament as have not been immersed.

Unitarianism the Way of the Lord. A Sermon delivered to the First Congregational Society in Burlington, Vermont, April, 1826. By George G. Ingersoll. Burlington. pp. 50.

The Evangelical Inquirer. Henry Healing Editor and Proprietor. No. I. for October, 1826. Richmond, Va.

An Epitome of Sacred History, containing the principal Events recorded in the Old and New Testaments. By Mary Ann Rundall.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

With an Explanation of the Hebrew Names of Persons and Places, by a Citizen of Philadelphia. Philadelphia. R. Desilver. 18mo. pp. 191.

TOPOGRAPHY.

Blunt's New Chart of the South American Ocean, revised, improved, and engraved, according to the Spanish and other Surveys.

A New Chart of the Bahama Banks and Gulf of Florida, on a square and larger scale than any published; with Views of Land. By E. Blunt. Price $4. New York. E. & G. W. Blunt.

AMERICAN EDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKS.

The Adventures of Don Juan de Ulloa, in a Voyage to Calcutta, soon after the Discovery of India, by Vasco de Gama. Illustrated with Twenty-four engravings. New York. William B. Gilley. 12mo. pp. 306.

Reports of Cases argued and determined in the High Court of Chancery, during the time of Lord Chancellor Eldon, from Hillary Term, 1818, to Michaelmas Term, 1819. By Clement Tredway Swanston, Esq. Barrister at Law. Vol. II. First American Edition. New York. George Lamson. 8vo. pp. 666.

The Anthology, or Poetical Library. Part IV. Containing Burns's Cotter's Saturday Night. Illustrated with a beautiful engraving, by J. W. Steel, from a design by R. Westall. Philadelphia. A. K. Poole. 18mo.

Diary of an Ennuyée. Philadelphia. E. Littell.

Bellamira; or the Fall of Tunis. A Tragedy. In Five Acts. By R. Shiell, Author of "The Apostate," &c.

Journal of a Third Voyage for the Discovery of a Northwest Passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific; performed in the years 1824 and 1825, in His Majesty's Ships Hecla and Fury, under the orders of Captain William E. Parry, Commander of the Expedition. Illustrated by a Map. Philadelphia. H. C. Carey & I. Lea. 8vo. pp. 232.

Adventures of a French Serjeant, during his Campaigns in Italy, Spain, Germany, Russia, &c. from 1805 to 1823. Written by Himself. Philadelphia. H. C. Carey & I. Lea. 12mo. pp. 300.

The Beauties of the British Classics, containing the best Selections, entertaining and instructive, of Essays, which have appeared in the Spectator, Guardian, Tatler, Idler, Hume's Essays, &c. From the last London Edition. Baltimore.

Rudiments of the Spanish Language; comprising the Alphabet, an Abridgment of the Grammar, Familiar Phrases, &c. Carefully revised, arranged, and accented, for the Use of Schools, and as a Manual for Travellers. By F. Sales. Boston. Munroe & Francis. 18mo. pp. 144.

Mair's Latin Syntax. New Edition.

Elements of Geometry; containing the First Six Books of Euclid &c.; to which is added, Elements of Plane and Spherical Trigonom-

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

etry, by John Playfair. Philadelphia. Marot & Walter. 8vo. pp 320.

A New Pocket Dictionary of the French and English Languages. By Thomas Nugent. Fourth American Edition. New York. George Long. 18mo. pp. 452.

A Theological Dictionary, containing Definitions of all Religious Terms. By the late Rev. Charles Buck. Philadelphia. Joseph J. Woodward. 8vo. pp. 615.

The Acting American Theatre. No. VI. Containing the Honey Moon, a Comedy. Philadelphia. 12mo.

A Grammar of Natural and Experimental Philosophy, &c. By the Rev. David Blair. New Edition. Hartford. O. D. Cooke & Co. 18mo. pp. 214.

Influence of Tropical Climates on European Constitutions. By James Johnson, M. D. A New Edition. New York. G. Long, Collins, & Co. 8vo. pp. 416.

The Explanatory and Pronouncing French Word Book; or, First Step to the French Language. By M. L'Abbé Bossuet. Boston. Richardson & Lord. 18mo. pp. 125.

Fabulas en Verso Castellano, para el uso del Real Seminario Vascongado. Por Don F. M. Samaniego. Nueva Edicion. New York. Behr & Kahl. 18mo. pp. 239.

Paradise Lost; a Poem, in 12 Books. By John Milton. Boston. Timothy Bedlington. 18mo. pp. 294.

The Complaint, or Night Thoughts, and the Force of Religion. By Edward Young, D. D. Boston. T. Bedlington. 18mo. pp. 288.

A Pocket Dictionary of the Spanish Languages, from the last improved Editions of Neuman and Barretti. Philadelphia. H. C. Carey & I. Lea. 18mo. pp. 708.

The History of Chivalry; or, Knighthood and its Times. By James Mills, Esq. Philadelphia. H. C. Carey and I. Lea. 8vo.

Sermons, by Hugh Blair. Third American Edition. 3 Vols. complete in 1. To which is prefixed, a Life of the Author. New York. J. & J. Harper. 8vo. pp. 636.

The Life and Adventures of Robinson Crusoe. By Daniel De Foe. Hartford. Silas Andrus. 18mo. pp. 313 and 293.

A Treatise on Diet, with a view to Establish on Practical Grounds, a System of Rules for the Preservation and Cure of the Diseases incident to a Disordered State of the Digestive Functions. By J. A. Paris. Philadelphia. R. H. Small. 8vo.

Practical Observations on Popular Education. By H. Brougham. From the Twentieth London Edition. Boston. 8vo. pp. 36.

The Acting American Theatre. No. VII. Containing the Tragedy of 'Isabella, or the Fatal Marriage.' Philadelphia.

Fabulas Literarias de D. Tomas de Yriarte. New York. Behr & Kahl. 18mo. pp. 176.

Narrative of Travels and Discoveries in Northern and Central Africa, in the years 1822, 1823, and 1824, by Major Denham, Captain Clapperton, and the late Dr Oudney; extending across the Great Desert to the tenth degree of Northern Latitude, and from Kouka, in Bornou, to Sackatoo, the capital of the Felatah Empire. With an

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Appendix. By Major Dixon Denham and Captain Hugh Clapperton, the Survivors of the Expedition. Boston. Cummings, Hilliard, & Co. 8vo. pp. 431.

Tales round a Winter Hearth. By Jane and Ann Maria Porter. 2 Vols. in 1. New York. J. & J. Harper. 12mo. pp. 296.

The Boyne Waters. A Tale. By the O'Hara Family. New York. J. & J. Harper. 12mo. pp. 285 and 288.

The Spectator; with Notes and a General Index. Complete in Two Volumes. New York. S. Marks. pp. 414 and 434.

Damon and Pythias. A Tragedy. In Five Acts. By R. Shiell, Esq.

Poems; by Bernard Barton. Boston. Munroe & Francis. 18mo. pp. 324.

The Character of Julius Cæsar; a Debate. By James Sheridan Knowles, Glassgow. Boston. Wait, Greene, & Co. 12mo. pp. 52.

The Dramatic Works of William Shakspeare. In 10 Vols. With the Corrections and Illustrations of Dr Johnson, G. Steevens, and others. Revised by Isaac Reed, Esq. New York. Collins & Hannay. 12mo.

Aladdin. A Fairy Opera. In Two Acts. By George B. Soane, B. A. New York. E. M. Murden. 18mo. pp. 75.

Adventures of a Young Rifleman, during the late Wars of Spain and Portugal. Written by Himself. Edited by Goethe. Philadelphia. H. C. Carey & I. Lea. 12mo.

Continental Adventures. A Novel. 3 Vols. Boston. Wells & Lilly. 12mo.

A Treatise on the Theory and Practice of Physic. By George Gregory, M. D. With Notes and Additions, adapting the work to the Practice of the United States, by Nathaniel Potter, M. D. and S. Calhoun, M. D. Philadelphia. Towar & Hogan.

The Beauties of Sir Walter Scott and Thomas Moore, Esq., selected from their Works; with Historical and Explanatory Notes. Philadelphia.

PROPOSED WORKS.

It is proposed to publish in New Orleans, THE CONQUEST OF CONSTANTINOPLE. By GEOFFROY DE VILLE-HARDOUIN, Marshal of Champagne. Translated by A. DAVEZAC.

In his general Prospectus of the work the translator speaks as follows.

'There exists no English translation, I believe, of the *Conquest of Constantinople;* and the silence of Gibbon, who sometimes cites the text, and and at others translates the original, warrants this conclusion.

'This translation will be prefaced by a concise history of the Crusades, which preceded that of the French and Venetians. A rapid sketch of those memorable expeditions, too short to fatigue those who have studied the eventful history of the middle ages, and yet sufficiently full to present a general view of that epoch, will give additional interest to the narration. This will be followed by a short biography of Ville-Hardouin. I remember, that, after perusing the history of the Conquest of Constantinople, I felt solicitous to be informed of the subsequent destinies of the Chronicler—of the Daring Knight—who had hurled the gauntlet

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

of defiance at the feet of an Emperor, seated on his throne, and surrounded by his guards and courtiers, and that obsequious train of slaves and eunuchs, the inseparable attendants of oriental greatness. I have thought that the result of my researches would gratify the curiosity of those readers who might feel the same desire.'

CAREY & LEA, Philadelphia, will publish, in March, the first number of a new periodical Journal, to be entitled THE AMERICAN QUARTERLY REVIEW.

'Their design is *national*, as far as it can be so extended. For that object, impartiality, as well as breadth of survey and variety of subject, will be invariably studied. In Philadelphia, the aid of many gentlemen of superior ability and scholastic and scientific acquirements, has already been secured; but as it is desired to bring into action talent and knowledge wherever situated, contributions are invited from writers throughout the Union, to whom personal application may not be made; and the publishers pledge themselves to pay liberally for such articles as shall be inserted in the work. The duties of editorship will be confided to a gentleman of high literary reputation.

'With regard to the subjects which are embraced in the design of the American Quarterly Review, its title and the common and known contents of the existing models bespeak them sufficiently. Preference must be given to works and materials, to principles and opinions, especially interesting and useful to our own country, whether they be of domestic or foreign origin. Mere party or local politics, polemical theology, involving injurious and irritating imputations, and whatever tends to disturb essential morals, fundamental Christian faith, or republican theory, will be rigorously excluded. As the work is not meant to be devoted to the views or favorite ends of any member or section of the Union, neither will it be to any exclusive or partial doctrines in any of the admitted subjects. The utmost latitude of opinion and discussion will be allowed, that is compatible with the limits, temper, and general merit to be required in each article. The resources and connexions of the proprietors are such, as to place within their reach copious information of the contemporary literature and public concerns of the principal countries of Europe and America; and they will sedulously avail themselves of all the means of the kind, which they can command, for the enrichment of the Review. They scarcely need to add, that the work will be truly *American* in spirit and drift; patriotism, alert, emphatic, resolute, militant even under certain circumstances, is a trait which should distinguish it and every similar production of this country.'

S. G. GOODRICH, Boston, will shortly publish, ELEMENTS OF MINERALOGY, adapted to the Use of Seminaries and Private Students, 1 Vol. 8vo. By J. L. Comstock, M. D.

The WORKS of HANNAH MORE, complete in 2 large Vols. 8vo. with a Portrait, and an original Sketch of the Life of the Author.

Also preparing for Publication, The WORKS of CHARLES BROCKDEN BROWN, with a SKETCH of the LIFE of the AUTHOR.

SPECIMENS of AMERICAN POETRY, with CRITICAL and BIOGRAPHICAL NOTICES.

ERRATA.

Page 42, line 37, for *derive*, read *driven*.
" 70, " 12 " *Brathand* " *Brathaut*.

PRODUCED BY UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED